The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 2, 1893.

The Week.

THERE has been no public man in the United States whose character and career have undergone such searching analysis as those of James G. Blaine, who has passed away since our last issue. Any extended notice of them in these columns, therefore, seems unnecessary, particularly as he has left no mark either in legislation or, beyond his 'Twenty Years of Congress,' in literature. He seems, indeed, to have added little or nothing to his general culture after he left the office of the country newspaper in which he made his début as a politician. His acquaintance with political economy, and even with the mechanism of foreign trade, was to the last hardly rudimentary, and he committed in speech and in writing the most extraordinary blunders regarding both, without the smallest embarrassment. His diplomatic experience, short as it was, brought out in an equally striking way his want of familiarity with history and law. His denouncing reciprocity (and foreign trade in general) in his letter from Paris in December, 1887, when Mr. Cleveland proposed it, did not prevent his appearing as its true author in 1890, and urging it on the Republican party with considerable sarcasm. These defects, however, apparently were not the smallest hindrance to his popularity. In fact, they were of some use in illustrating the wonderful influence of his personality on the great bulk of his party.

Probably no such triumph of personal traits as his has ever been achieved in public life. His cheery, bluff manners, his kindly ways, his vivid and cultivated recollection of obscure people, his readiness in repartee and in anecdote, and his somewhat boisterous and often fantastic expression of that longing for the spread of American influence and domination abroad, known as "Americanism," which constitutes the conscious patriotism of large bodies of the less thoughtful voters, more than compensated for all his shortcomings as a statesman. The nearest parallel to him among foreign politicians of recent date is Lord Palmerston, whom he strikingly resembled in temperament and in manners, and whose influence, as a type, on the rising generation in England was very like his own here. That is, he became here, as Palmerston became in England, the head of what may be called the "jingo" school in foreign politics, and labored to make foreign politics the most absorbing politics of the nation. To him the foreigner was the one enemy, to be euchred in trade, bullied in diplomacy, and made to knuckle down in every species of intercourse. In efforts to improve internal administration, or to take thought for home morals, he displayed but little if any interest. His chief joy was found in the conflicts of party, in which he was no mean foe. His skill as a polemical orator was great. His quickness and dexterity as a parliamentarian were perhaps unequalled in our time, and his confidence in the power of appeals to popular prejudice often reached the point of audacity. The misfortunes of his career, which were great, were doubtless due, like those of several of his contemporaries, to his appearance in the political arena in the period of fierce wealth-getting which followed the close of the war. He was not a man to be content with moral and intellectual victories. He shared to the full extent the excitement of the game of money-getting into which the country plunged after the tremendous losses of the rebellion. Large fortunes were to him the best outward and visible signs of worldly success, and the laurels of the great financiers and speculators of the day would not let him sleep. And so it came about that long before he died, and shrewd and "smart" as he was universally esteemed, he had a larger list of real failures and disappointments to record than falls to the lot of most outwardly successful men.

In the year 1875 a treaty of reciprocity, so called, was made between the United States and his Majesty the King of the Hawaiian Islands, the principal feature of which was the admission of Hawaiian sugar free of duty to this country. As the islands could not produce more than one-tenth of the sugar imported by us, the remission of the duty to them exclusively was equivalent to a bounty of two cents per pound on all they could produce. The sugar industry became very flourishing and passed into the hands of a few rich people in San Francisco. They managed to send us from 200,000,000 to 250,000,000 pounds per year. In 1889 our importations from Hawaii were 243,000,000 pounds. The bounty to the producers for that year was nearly $5,000,000. There was constant complaint among the people of the Pacific Coast during all this time that they got their sugar no cheaper than before, but that on the contrary they were required to pay the market price of the East plus the freight charges for all that they used. This was not the only complaint. The Eastern refiners (before the days of the Sugar Trust) alleged, and no doubt, truly, that Mr. Spreckels was enabled to lay down sugars in the Mississippi Valley in unfair competition with them, since he got his raw sugar at two cents per pound less than they were required to pay.

It would be useless now to discuss the wisdom or unwisdom of the Treaty of 1875. Other considerations than those of sugar-planting entered into it. For better or for worse, the treaty ran along until the McKinley tariff was passed. The repeal of the duties on raw sugar put the Hawaiian Islands once more on the same footing as other foreign countries. Their bounty was cut off. To stop a regular income of four or five millions of dollars from a little group of islands, or rather from a small coterie in that group, is a serious matter. Something was sure to happen in consequence, and something has happened. There has been a "revolution." The "Queen of the Sandwich Islands" has been overthrown. Tyranny is in the dust. The people (about 50,000 natives and 3,000 Americans and Europeans) have asserted the sacred right of self-government. There are nearly as many Chinese coolies, called "contract laborers," on the islands as there are natives of the Hawaiian stock. Of course these have had nothing to do with the revolution, nor, for that matter, have the natives. The upheaval is in the American quarter altogether. It is a revolution on a strictly cash basis. When the McKinley tariff put raw sugar on the free list, it gave a bounty of two cents per pound to the producers of sugar in the United States. This was sufficient to revolutionize the Hawaiian Islands any day. The sugar-planters want that bounty. They have a delegation, or an embassy, or whatever it may be called, en route to Washington city now to place the sovereignty of the kingdom at our disposal and the sugar bounty at their disposal.

The importance of Hawaii lies in the fact that it is a stopping-place in a great waste of waters. It is a rendezvous for coal and supplies of all kinds for those who go down to the sea in ships. We have now, and have had from the earliest times, every facility of this nature that we could possibly desire. If we had owned the islands, we could not have had greater privileges there, although our responsibilities would have been greater. In fact, Americans have governed the islands during most of the time since we have had possessions on the Pacific Coast. We have been spared the trouble of fortifying them and keeping a large naval force in those waters and settling their private quarrels. Since 1875 we have had a treaty with the islands which expressly forbids them to grant any lien, power, or control over any part of their territory to any other government. But if there had been no such treaty, we should still have forbidden any such lien, power, or control. As other nations have respected our wishes in the matter in the past, they would respect them in the future all the more as our power to command respect increases with revolving years. The situation heretofore has been exactly to our

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

liking, and we may well ask why it should be changed.

Secretary Foster's report on the condition of the Treasury, present and prospective, made to the Committee on Ways and Means, is in irreconcilable conflict with his annual report submitted to Congress last December, and also with the monthly Treasury statements. Where he has had to increase his estimates of expenditures—as in the pension and river-and-harbor items—he has correspondingly and hopefully pushed up his estimates of receipts. No attempt is made to get a balance of income over appropriations, but only over the amount to which the Secretary can screw down the absolutely necessary payments. Mr. Foster admits that if he had complied with the requirements of the law in regard to the sinking fund, he would have been many millions to the bad. It also appears from the report that contracts for public buildings authorized by Congress, to the amount of $6,000,000, have not been let. Then, Pension-Commissioner Raum has put in an estimate of an extra deficiency of $3,335,000. This made matters look dangerous for the Secretary's balance of $2,000,000, which was the most he could claim, but he was equal to the emergency, and suddenly discovered that the internal revenue was going to be just $3,335,000 more than he had previously supposed. With such special providences at his command, it is no wonder that our Micawber in the Treasury Department maintains that he will pass over the finances to his successor in good condition, and that, if there is any trouble afterwards, it will be owing to the bad management of some other fellow.

The death of Justice Lamar of the United States Supreme Court occurred within less than six weeks of the end of President Harrison's term. There is naturally discussion as to whether the retiring President will attempt to appoint his successor, and as to his choice in case he should decide to make the attempt. Mr. Harrison has already filled three vacancies upon the Supreme bench. A marked characteristic of his action in each of these cases has been its extreme deliberation. Take, for example, the last. Justice Bradley died on the 22d of January, 1892—a year almost to a day before Mr. Lamar. The nomination of his successor, Shiras, was not sent to the Senate until the 19th of July following—a period of six months; this, too, although the court had been in session nearly all this time and in urgent need of the assistance which a new appointee could render. It would therefore be quite out of line if Mr. Harrison were now to name a man for the existing vacancy offhand. There is no excuse for such indecent haste in the condition of judicial business, as the court will shortly adjourn for the annual February recess, and will not meet again before the expiration of Mr. Harrison's term. No public interest, therefore, will suffer if Mr. Harrison fails to take action in the matter.

The Anti-Option Bill has passed the Senate by a vote of 40 to 29. The affirmative vote consisted of 27 Republicans and 13 Democrats; the negative consisted of 9 Republicans and 20 Democrats. So far as party politics can be imputed to the measure, it would seem to have a Republican tinge, yet no bill can be called a party measure which passes both a Democratic House and a Republican Senate. Still, it is a measure avowedly for the benefit of a class, and therefore it allies itself with Republican policy. It affirms that the laws of trade, as they have worked themselves out, are oppressive to certain persons and interests. The power of the Government is accordingly invoked to redress the balance under the guise of an exercise of the taxing power. It is sought to suppress the vocations and livelihood of certain persons by imposing upon them a burden not shared by the community in general. This form of proceeding, although not unknown to our statute-book, is unconstitutional in spirit. Senator Vest of Missouri has placed himself on the high level of the late Mr. Lamar (in reference to the Silver Bill) by voting against the Anti-Option Bill although his Legislature had passed resolutions of instructions in favor of it.

The Kansas Populists have gone through the form of electing a Senator, their choice being Judge John Martin, a prominent Democrat who, during the recent campaign, favored the fusion policy. Whether the election is valid is a question which will be immediately transferred for decision to the Senate itself, the vacancy in question being that caused by the death of Senator Plumb, whose seat was filled by the Governor's appointee only until the Legislature should make a choice. A quorum of the Legislature consists of eighty-three members, and there were cast for Martin eighty-six votes, while six were given for other men. But nine of the eighty-six are men who have been arbitrarily seated by the Populist House since the opening of its session, and who, it is claimed by the Republicans, had no right to vote. Without these nine, Martin had but seventy-seven votes; and if a man must receive the votes of a quorum, and these nine are thrown out, he is not entitled to the seat. But, on the other hand, it is claimed that only a majority of a quorum is necessary to an election, and that, as a quorum of eighty-three members with undisputed certificates voted on January 25, Martin's title is good, without any reference to the nine disputed seats. The Senate will doubtless have a long discussion of the case, with a strong likelihood that the division may be along partisan lines, in which case Martin will not be admitted before the 4th of March.

Wisconsin will have two Democratic Senators after the 4th of March next for the first time in nearly forty years. The State was admitted to the Union in 1848, and the same year voted for Cass for President and chose two Democrats to the Senate. The Republicans first carried the Legislature in 1854, just as the term of one Democrat was running out, and they secured the other seat as the result of the election of 1856. Except for the period that Doolittle, twice chosen as a Republican, supported the Democrats during the Johnson Administration, there were two Republicans all the while until Mr. Vilas took his seat in 1891. Five weeks hence, and for at least four years to come, there will be two Democrats in the Senate from Wisconsin. This is the first time that one of the old Republican States in the West has been represented only by Democrats in the Senate since the election of Lincoln. Should the Cleveland Administration realize the hopes entertained of it, no reason appears why Wisconsin should not continue, as in the last two elections, a Democratic State.

The Legislature of North Carolina has gone to work to pass a law for the issue of State bank-notes as though Congress had already repealed the ten per cent. tax. The idea has got abroad, especially in the South, that the next Congress will repeal the tax, and hence that it is only necessary to pass some kind of a law to regulate such issues, in order to be ready when the door is thrown open. There is no very good reason for supposing that Congress will repeal that tax. There is still less reason for supposing that Congress will repeal it unconditionally. Although the Democratic national platform contains a plank in favor of the repeal, it was not a real issue in the campaign except in a few places, and in these it did the party more harm than good, since it introduced a new subject for discussion and put the Democratic speakers and newspapers on the defensive. It is safe to say that Congress will not pass any bill to repeal the ten per cent. tax until it has a pretty clear idea of the probable consequences, and it is equally safe to predict that the President-elect will not sign any such bill without absolute assurance against the kind of wild-catting and red-dogging that was rife before the war.

Now, it is to be observed that North Carolina has started on the wrong road with the two bills under consideration—the very road that led many States into the ditch in the ante-war period—*i. e.*, banking on miscellaneous securities. One of these bills authorizes the issue of circulating notes on the deposit of United States bonds; State, county, and municipal bonds issued under the laws of North Carolina; bonds of any State having a marketable

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

par value, drawing interest, or railroad mortgage bonds—the Governor, Attorney-General, and State Treasurer to determine their value. This is pretty much the same thing as the Wisconsin Free Banking Law of 1853; the results of which are an abomination and a stench in the nostrils of all the people of that State and the adjoining States whose memory goes back so far. The people of Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin lost $5,000,000 out of a total issue of $13,000,000 through this sort of banking, or about 40 per cent. of the whole.

The other bill before the Legislature of North Carolina is a little worse because it allows the issue of circulating notes on mortgage security as well as on State, municipal, and corporation bonds. There have been two examples of this kind of banking in our history. One was in the State of Michigan. Here, in fact, the idea of bank-note issuance against deposited securities had its legislative beginning. A law was passed by the State of Michigan in 1837 authorizing the issue of bank-notes on the deposit of approved bonds and mortgages in the hands of State officers. For a short time affairs went on swimmingly and the people seemed to have plenty of money; but when Eastern debts had to be paid and it became necessary to present the notes for redemption, those banks had no ready money, although they had, or supposed they had, plenty of security. As soon as doubt was cast on the goodness of the notes, a run began, and the whole system went down with a crash. Then began litigation over the "securities," and the Supreme Court of the State benevolently quashed the whole by declaring the Banking Act unconstitutional. The State of New York adopted the same policy one year later, and not without mournful consequences, as Comptroller Flagg reported in 1846 that the loss of note-holders of insolvent free banks had been nearly 39 per cent. The New York Bank Law still authorizes the issue of circulating notes on the deposit of real-estate mortgages, and the only thing that prevents the issue of such notes is the 10 per cent. tax.

The New York Constitutional Convention Bill, as finally approved by the Governor, provides practically for a convention composed entirely of Democrats and Republicans. The provisions of the preceding bills for minority representation were all abandoned, and none of the minority parties—Prohibition, Labor, or other—is likely to have any voice in the convention. As it stands, the bill provides for the election of 175 delegates; 160 to be chosen by Senate districts, 5 in each district, and the remaining 15 to be chosen by the whole State as delegates-at-large. Each elector will be entitled to vote for five district delegates and fifteen delegates-at-large, and those receiving the highest number of votes will be elected. The election is to be held in November on the same date as the general election. Whichever political party carries the State will, in all probability, control the convention. It is unfortunate that the delegates could not be chosen, as was first proposed, at a special election in which no other issue was involved. There would then have been some chance that the voters would discriminate among the candidates, without regard to political divisions. As it is now, the names of the delegates will be printed on the official ballots with the names of the candidates for minor State and legislative offices, and the tendency of the great mass of voters will be to cast their ballots on straight party lines, paying little or no heed to the comparative merits of the convention nominees.

Mr. David Dudley Field improves the occasion of the present talk about consolidation of New York and Brooklyn to urge, in the columns of the Brooklyn *Eagle*, the adoption of a new name for the former city, the name of Manhattan. His reasons are numerous and meritorious, or at all events plausible, and would undoubtedly prevail if the world had not got its head set on New York, in the same way that it has got its head set on the word America instead of Columbia as the designation of this hemisphere. Mr. Field maintains that the word New York is a badge of colonial dependence. True. So are New Jersey, New Hampshire, New Haven, New London, Delaware, Georgia, Louisiana, Louisville, St. Louis, Boston, Baltimore, Charleston, Manchester, and a hundred others. It will be a hard job to shed all these colonial integuments. The name of New York never was a fit one for this city, says Mr. Field, because it bears no resemblance to the old York, which is a sleepy inland town, while this is a great commercial seaport. True again, but resemblances are never taken into the account in giving names either to towns or to children. Moreover, says Mr. Field, the name of New York is identical with that of the State, and this is an inconvenience and leads to confusion. Emphatically true. Would that it were otherwise. "The change would be easy," Mr. Field thinks; it would only be necessary for people to change their letter-heads. The objection that the city is known to all the world as New York is, he thinks, of little consequence.

Gov. Werts of New Jersey has begun the practical elevation of the character of the appointive judges of the Court of Errors and Appeals of that State by his nomination of Mr. William Walter Phelps to fill a coming vacancy, and Mr. Phelps will do his part in the work of elevation if he accepts the appointment. There is no constitutional provision requiring the Governor to fill these places with incompetent laymen, selected only because they have some political "pull," and if once the custom comes to be to make the positions honorable by the selections made to fill them, the office will become attractive to men whose nominations will be a credit to the judiciary. Gov. Werts has also distinguished himself by reappointing Prosecutor Winfield of Hudson County. Mr. Winfield earned the hearty hatred of the Jersey City ring by sending the ballot-box-stuffers to prison, and his reappointment was bitterly opposed. He is a man of great legal ability and force of character, and should be kept where he is until the political atmosphere of Hudson County is a good deal clearer than it is at present. The Governor had proof on Monday that courage tells. The objectionable bill curtailing the appointing power of the Mayor of Jersey City because he is a Republican was recalled from the Governor's hands by the introducer, to save it from the condemnation of a veto.

Mr. Thompson, the "American Minister of Marine," who, M. de Lesseps said, had charge of the interests of the Panama Canal Company in this country, has made an explanation about the $2,400,000 of the fund which has been traced to this country. At first he said he knew nothing, or next to nothing, about any funds except his own salary—$25,000 a year. Then he averred that a good deal of the money —$200,000—went for "dredges, cars, and locomotives"; he himself having "bought 500 cars in Terre Haute alone." Now he says that, in looking over his papers, he discovers that the exact number of cars was 300. Moreover, he cannot remember the cost of the dredge made at San Francisco, but he is sure it was the "largest dredge of its kind ever made and cost a lot of money." The books of the company, he says, will give all the items, adding: "We have nothing to cover up; and I think that when the facts are known, it will be found that the American committee has nothing to fear from an investigation of the strictest sort." Mr. Thompson also appeared once before the Committee on Foreign Affairs in 1881, and once before the Interoceanic Canal Committee subsequently, and convinced both bodies that it was for the interest of the United States that the canal should be made with French money, in opposition to the contention that a canal thus constructed would run counter to the Monroe Doctrine. Mr. Thompson further says that all the Panama money spent in this country passed through the hands of three banking-houses in this city, Seligman & Co., Winslow, Lanier & Co., and Drexel, Morgan & Co. This makes the task of discovering what became of it very easy. These highly respectable houses will respond to a subpœna from a committee of inquiry, and we shall then know whether the money was all spent in locomotives, cars, and dredges.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

THE CONSTITUTIONALITY OF FEDERAL QUARANTINE.

THE Board of Health of Louisiana has addressed a somewhat passionate petition to Congress against the establishment of Federal quarantine, on both constitutional and economic grounds. The economic argument it is difficult to meet seriously. It consists, in the main, of an assertion, copied from a paper of ex-President Holt's of the Louisiana Board of Health in 1886, that a national board of health would be used in the interest of Eastern capitalists and traders to injure the Valley of the Mississippi, and particularly the port of New Orleans. Here is the way in which they would carry out their diabolical purpose:

"The great seaports of Norfolk, Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, and Boston, the whole system of transcontinental railroads, would send a swarm of agents every summer into Louisiana with microscopes and chemicals, hunting for germs; the telegraph wires playing day and night transmitting startling accounts of suspicious discoveries, and the public mind of the whole country whipped into a fever of anxiety, as a prelude to shutting up our port, ostensibly for yellow fever, really in the commercial interests of rivals."

We shall only remark on this that it furnishes another illustration of the extent to which the high-tariff men have succeeded during the last twenty years in filling the popular mind with the devilish doctrine that in commercial intercourse one country can flourish only at the expense of some other country, and even one part of a country at the expense of some other part; that the money which one man makes in trade some other man loses. That the ports of the Eastern coast, and the owners of the transcontinental railroads, have, or think they have, such an interest in the impoverishment of the Mississippi Valley that they would resort to any fraud or falsehood to bring it about, seems on its face a notion worthy of a lunatic asylum; and yet it is a legitimate outcome of the attitude taken up in the late canvass by the McKinleyites towards England and other foreign countries. The children in our schools ought surely to be taught that every modern State has the keenest interest in the prosperity of its neighbors, because, to take the lowest ground, it is in trade with the prosperous, and not with the impoverished, that most profit is made. The moral government of the world has not been so arranged that the misery of one set of men shall be a necessary condition of the happiness of another set.

The constitutional objection of the Louisiana Board of Health to Federal quarantine is, we are glad to say, more serious. It is based mainly on the language of Judge Marshall in the famous case of Gibbons vs. Ogden (9 Wheaton), where he speaks of quarantine laws as "component parts of a mass of legislation" over which no direct power is granted to Congress, and "which consequently remain subject to State legislation." But this only shows the danger of brief quotations from long opinions. Further on Judge Marshall clearly explains that State quarantine laws are valid and constitutional only so long as Congress does not choose to override them in asserting its power to regulate commerce, and all the authorities are agreed that "commerce" includes "intercourse." Judge Marshall says:

"The acts of Congress, passed in 1796 and 1799, empowering and directing the officers of the general Government to conform to and assist in the execution of the quarantine and health laws of a State, proceed, it is said, upon the idea that these laws are constitutional. It is undoubtedly true that they do proceed upon that idea; and the constitutionality of such laws has never, so far as we are informed, been denied. But they do not imply an acknowledgment that a State may rightfully regulate commerce with foreign nations or among the States; nor do they imply that such laws are an exercise of that power, or enacted with a view to it. On the contrary, they are treated as quarantine and health laws, are so denominated in the acts of Congress, and are considered as flowing from the acknowledged power of a State to provide for the health of its citizens. But, as it was apparent that some of the provisions made for this purpose and in virtue of this power might interfere with and be affected by the laws of the United States made for the regulation of commerce, Congress, in that spirit of harmony and conciliation which ought always to characterize the conduct of governments standing in the relation which that of the Union and those of the States bear to each other, has directed its officers to aid in the execution of these laws, and has, in some measure, adapted its own legislation to this object, by making provisions in aid of those of the States. But, in making these provisions, the opinion is unequivocally manifested that Congress may control the State laws, so far as it may be necessary to control them, for the regulation of commerce."

If State quarantine laws were impregnable against Federal interference, the State of New York could for all practical purposes suspend intercourse with Europe through this port for an indefinite period, on the pretence that it was exercising a legitimate police power. Jenkins could, in fact, ruin the shipping merchants on the pretence that he was "keeping out cholera," for there is no State control over him. The power to regulate foreign commerce must connote the power, *if Congress pleases*, to regulate quarantine. Story so understood it. He makes the power to regulate commerce cover "quarantine laws, and pilotage laws, and wrecks of the sea." In the case of Morgan vs. Louisiana (118 U. S.), Justice Miller, admitting the intent of Congress to adopt State quarantine regulations and to recognize the power of States to pass them, says:

"But it may be conceded that whenever Congress shall undertake to provide for the commercial cities of the United States a general system of quarantine, or shall confide the execution of the details of such a system to a National Board of Health, or to local boards, as may be found expedient, all State laws on the subject may be abrogated, at least so far as the two are inconsistent. But until this is done, the laws of the State on the subject are valid."

Mr. Hornblower, discussing the quarantine question before the Society of Medical Jurisprudence in this city in November last, based on this opinion the assertion that there is "no doubt of the constitutional power of Congress to act." In truth, all the authorities concur in the opinion that quarantine is a matter left by the Constitution within State jurisdiction *only* so long as Congress approves of State legislation and does not consider it unreasonable or an interference with commercial intercourse. To surrender quarantine to exclusive State control would be a complete surrender of the power to regulate commerce, and would, in fact, enable any local Tammany or Jenkins to levy prohibitory shipping tolls on foreign vessels. Justice McLean, delivering judgment in Smith vs. Turner (7 Howard), says: "By the Fourteenth Article of the Treaty of 1794 with England, it is stipulated that the people of each country may freely come with their ships and cargoes to the other, subject only to the laws and statutes of the two countries respectively. *The statutes here referred to are those of the Federal Government, and not of the States.* The general Government only is known in our foreign intercourse." That is, England knows nothing legally of Jenkins, and therefore is not bound to submit her ships and passengers to his regulations should a dispute arise. Of course this may be got over by making Congress approve of Jenkins and adopt him; but the Judge's dictum shows that Jenkins has no inherent, endogenous sanitary powers.

COMPURGATIVE BANQUETS.

THERE is probably no organization of a public nature in the world which has had so many charges made against it as Tammany. Its history for twenty-five years has been largely made up of accusations of dishonesty, inefficiency, and ignorance against its leading men. But not one of these charges has it ever met by denial and proof. Its system of defence consists wholly either in silence, or in the production of witnesses who did not see them do it. This system of meeting witnesses who saw by a larger body of witnesses who did not see, old as it is, has never been so successfully worked by any other culprits. It is, of course, a very ancient system, and probably had its origin in the "Compurgators" of the common law, but it is now deeply rooted in American politics, and has been improved upon. The old common-law Compurgators were apt to be kinsmen of the accused, or members of the same guild, and they came into court to swear that they did not *believe* him to be guilty. The modern political Compurgator covers more ground, for he swears that the accused *is* not guilty, and rebukes the accusers as slanderers. The "old pastor" who appears in support of candidates in times of trouble is probably the best Compurgator of our day, because he not only meets the special charge of the hour, but covers a large portion of the defendant's life with a certificate of blamelessness. In the matter of compurgation, the defence has, of course, an immense advantage over the attack. The

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

public imagination is easily impressed by numbers and by authority, and there is no limit to the number of witnesses who can swear that they did not see the offence committed, and there is no station in which witnesses of this description may not be found. The humblest thief, under this system, might summon the President of the United States or Bishop Potter to testify in his behalf.

In Tammany defences, the Compurgators, the witnesses who did not witness, are usually produced at "a banquet." They are careful, however, not to meet any particular charge, or even to mention it. They compurgate either by a general eulogy on the accused, laying particular stress on the virtues in which he has been said to be wanting, or by a general denunciation of "slander," with a possibly very vague allusion to certain slanders of comparatively recent date. If, for instance, a Tammany man has been accused of drunkenness, the Compurgator dwells with emphasis on his love of tea and coffee and lemonade; if of licentiousness or disorder, on his attention to his religious duties and his fondness for the home circle; if of official corruption and increasing wealth, on his untiring industry and skilful investments in real estate. Of the fact that specific offences have been alleged against him, one gets no glimpse whatever, or only a very remote one. The only approach to it is an intimation that the slanderers and backbiters are particularly busy about this time, as, indeed, they were in the time of Washington, and are making official life increasingly difficult for pure and high-minded men. Oakey Hall's compurgation of the Ring, by dwelling on the lofty character and high social position of the gentlemen who audited Connolly's accounts, and comparing them to Connolly's assailants, was perhaps as skilful a piece of work as was ever done in this field. When he cried, "Oh, what a difference there is" between Marshall O. Roberts and Stewart L. Woodford, he did not say one word of direct defence of Connolly, and yet it somehow seemed to raise Connolly far above Woodford, and to put him beside his Compurgator, Roberts, as a spotless financier.

Compurgation, as we have said, is apt to be done at "banquets," first because the audience is select, and is made to consist solely of friends of the accused, and, secondly, because Compurgators go to banquets far more readily than to meetings. Many a one who would like to escape a meeting goes joyfully to a dinner, and feels flattered by being asked to speak at it. Dr. Jenkins has found this out, of course, and is just now "putting up a job," to use a vulgar phrase, of compurgation of remarkable merit. He is to have a "testimonial banquet and reception" at Jaeger's on February 11, and in the circular admits that it is "tendered to him by a grateful people for the great and efficient services that he rendered during the past year in saving his country from cholera." But, curiously enough, the only two Compurgators out of "the grateful people" whom he cites in the circular—namely, the Speaker of our House of Representatives and the President of the Mexican Board of Health—are very remote from the scene of his labors.

Now, the skill of all this, as a bit of compurgation, lies in the way in which the report of the leading sanitarians on the spot, who actually witnessed and examined Jenkins's work, is ignored and will be ignored at the banquet. Not a single mention will be made of their testimony against Jenkins nor of the unanimous vote of the Chamber of Commerce. The testimony produced will be that of witnesses who did not witness, of the large and highly respectable throng who kept away from the Quarantine when Jenkins was administering it. Neither Speaker Crisp nor Dr. Liciega was within one thousand miles of Jenkins when he was grappling with the cholera, and therefore they are filled with gratitude to him; and in truth the gratitude of a Compurgator and his ability to "voice" it are usually in the inverse ratio of his knowledge of the facts. We are bound to say, however, that here in the city the number of possible Jenkins Compurgators has greatly diminished. Last summer he was able, after his most flagrant mismanagement, to send out runners and get piles of testimony from doctors who knew nothing whatever about the matter except what he had told them. Not one of these gentlemen will venture to open his mouth for compurgative purposes since the report of the doctors who went down the bay and actually saw Jenkins wrestling with his malignant foe.

PHILLIPS BROOKS AND THE MODERN PULPIT.

Of Phillips Brooks it can be said, more truthfully than of any other clergyman of his generation enjoying anything like his fame, that his career and success were those of a preacher. In an age when it is universally agreed that the pulpit has declined, he was able to attain in it an eminence and a power as great as any man could desire. Such a figure as his in the Christian pulpit of the last half of the nineteenth century may well give pause to those who are affirming that modern conditions have for ever broken the power of the old-time preacher. To those, on the other hand, who say that modern conditions are all wrong, and that the thing to do is, with Cardinal Newman, to wish that the world might again become bigoted and superstitious, so that religion and its official expounders might be restored to their old place—to such bewailers of the good old times the career of Phillips Brooks in the better new times ought also to furnish food for thought. They ought to be led by it to ask themselves whether the wise way is to seek in vain to bring back what is now in the irrevocable past, or to adjust themselves to the present.

This is what Brooks did. He furnishes no proof whatever that an old-time preacher can flourish under modern conditions as well as a century ago, for the simple reason that he was not an old-time preacher. Whatever genius he had, lay in his perception that the men of his generation can no longer be reached by the methods of the past, and in his power to speak the language of the present. His example does not show that it is still possible for the pulpit to hold its old place, but only that it is still possible for the pulpit to make for itself a new place. How that new place can be made may be seen by a glance at some of the qualities which gave Phillips Brooks his influence.

His liberality was sincere and boundless. It did not consist, as in too many cases, of a grudging recognition of the fact that opinion can no longer be controlled by ecclesiastical or civil law, and so find its main expression in calling freedom of thought freedom to damn yourself by false beliefs. Nor was his liberality mere indifference, as if all truth were pretty doubtful anyhow, and all you had to do was to choose your party or your church and then stick to it. His convictions were profound and intense, but so, he clearly saw, might be other men's who differed from him. His method, therefore, was not to denounce others, or to seek to impose his beliefs on them, but to join hands with all earnest men everywhere in the search for truth and righteousness.

Obviously such a man could have no sympathy with anything that was merely sacerdotal. The forms and conventions of his church he used with ease, and doubtless with pleasure, as Emerson said that a man of native strength and skill of handling could succeed even under the oldest and mouldiest conventions; but when men attempted to bind him with them he snapped them as Samson did his green withes. Professional airs and priestly assumptions were abhorrent to him. He was always horrifying the "unco guid" of his own denomination by his carelessness of clerical privilege, and by the frank terms of equality on which he placed himself with all honest and benevolent men. Even the robes of a bishop could not make an ecclesiastic out of him, and only a few weeks ago a fellow-bishop, whom it is charity not now to name, published a long protest to the Church at large against the scandalous conduct of Phillips Brooks, an Episcopalian bishop, in consorting with Congregational publicans and Unitarian sinners.

Of still more importance in securing him his sway over men was the perfect sincerity which always marked his bearing and his speech. He never gave the impression of keeping back anything, of "looking this objection full in the face,"

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

as a preacher said once in unconscious confession, "and passing by on the other side." It is not probable that he was a great student, or deeply read, but he knew what men were thinking of, and he had the gift of speaking to their real and present needs. Religion was in him near to Matthew Arnold's famous definition of it as "morality touched with emotion," and his greatest flights as a preacher were those in which he glorified the common round and daily task of mortals with the light of eternal principles and hopes. Wall Street crowding Trinity Church at noonday meetings for a week to hear Phillips Brooks speak on righteousness and truth and judgment gave striking testimony to the power of his honesty and manly faith.

His life proves, in short, that if the pulpit has declined, the trouble is with the pulpit and not with the times. It is a great mistake to suppose that the opportunity of the preacher has passed or is rapidly passing. What has passed is the notion that a sermon, as such, is a channel of grace; that an illogical harangue is not an illogical harangue when delivered from the pulpit; that a man whom his college mates know to be of no more than average ability becomes suddenly endowed with supernatural wisdom and authority upon entering the ministry. All that is dead and gone. But what has not gone, what will never go as long as human nature remains what it is, is the willingness of men to hear gladly the preacher who can put an ideal interpretation upon their lives, and quicken all their nobler aspirations, and strengthen them in all their worthier resolves. For such a preacher the time is always ripe, and for lack of him too many churches are in the condition of the one where Carlyle went to hear Sterling preach—where, he said, it would be possible to let off a musket in any direction without danger of hitting an auditor. Phillips Brooks has no better lesson to teach the ministry of to day—and he was emphatically a preacher's preacher—than the lesson that the surest way to reëstablish the pulpit in the respect and affection of the people is to make it tolerant, unaffected, progressive, and, above all, transparently honest.

THE NEW IRISH HOME-RULE BILL.

THE synopsis of the forthcoming Irish Home-Rule Bill transmitted by telegraph on Sunday probably contains all the important features of the measure. The list of powers reserved for the Imperial Parliament follows the Constitution of the United States almost on all fours, as indeed did the bill of 1886. The additions to these reservations in the present scheme are the imposition of any legislation affecting customs duties or excise duties, and the control of the Imperial Parliament over the land question for a period of five years. These last are doubtless meant to meet the objections to the last bill drawn from Parnell's utterances in favor of protection for Irish industry, and from the numerous denunciations of the whole landlord class by most of the Irish leaders.

The positive prohibitions are also the same as those of 1886, with some few additions, suggested by Tory criticism. For instance, the prohibition of 1886 directed against interference with the right to establish denominational schools, is made to cover interference with the right to establish denominational institutions of charity, and the right of children to attend public schools without receiving religious instruction therein.

The most important change in the new measure is, however, the separation of the two branches of the Legislature. Under the bill of 1886 the two "orders"—Peers and Commons—were to sit together; an arrangement which would probably in practice have resulted disastrously by producing daily rows. Under the present bill they sit apart, or, in case of disagreement, appoint a committee of conference very much as we do. If unable to agree, they go to the country on the special question in dispute, after the Swiss fashion. This introduction of the referendum into British politics, if carried out, cannot but have far-reaching results, but the late Tory commitments have been such that it is hard to say where they will find arguments to resist it. The upper house or "order" is to contain, as in the bill of 1886, 103 members, of whom 75 are to be elective, and the remaining 28 to consist of the twenty-eight representative peers who now sit in the House of Lords. The elective members are to be possessed of an income of £1,000 a year from real and personal property, and after thirty-eight years the non-elective peers are wholly to disappear, and the whole body to become elective. The qualification for electors of the upper house is the ownership or occupation of land of the net annual value of £125 a year. The lower house remains unchanged—204 members to be elected by existing constituencies, while the upper house is to be elected by new and equal electoral districts.

The new feature in the present bill which will excite most discussion, is the provision for the continued presence of 103 Irish members in the Imperial Parliament elected as at present, who will vote on all the questions reserved from the Irish Legislature. This will doubtless be the chief point of attack to the opponents of the bill. It was the failure of the bill of 1886 to provide for the continued presence of Irish members at Westminster which, according to their own account, drove most of the Liberal Unionists into secession—it looked so like the concession of Irish independence. But when they came to consider the possibility of retaining the Irish members, they declared that a proper arrangement for that purpose was beyond the wit of man. We do not know, of course, what the details of the present arrangement are, but the chief difficulty which appears on the surface is this: The great bulk of the questions reserved from the Irish Parliament will be, for England and Scotland, domestic questions. Should an adverse majority, worked by Irish members sitting for Ireland, be allowed to turn out an English Ministry on such matters, for instance, as coinage, customs duties, navigation, quarantine, copyright? Suppose, too, that the Irish were engaged in a wrangle with the English Ministry in power, what would prevent the 103 in the Imperial Parliament from punishing the Ministry as now by a close alliance with the Opposition, in complete indifference to the merits of the dispute? In other words, this section of the new bill apparently maintains that one of the inconveniences of the present Union which has done most to reconcile the Liberals to its abrogation. But it can hardly be discussed fully without seeing the text of the bill.

The proposed financial arrangements are important, as they cut down the Irish contribution to the Imperial Exchequer considerably. The bill of 1886 called on Ireland, for various purposes, for $23,000,000 annually. The present bill calls for only $11,505,000. This result has been brought about by very able examination of the comparative taxation of the two countries, which has been carried on during the last seven years by Home-Rulers, both English and Irish, whose names appear but little on the surface of the agitation. The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council is to continue to be the Supreme Court to which all constitutional questions are to be referred, as in the bill of 1886. But whether it is to be in such cases a court of first or of last resort only does not appear. How citizens who find themselves injured by unconstitutional legislation on the part of the Irish Parliament are to be kept out of the ordinary courts, we, so far, do not see. With us an unconstitutional law is no law, and an officer or individual who attempts to act under it to another man's detriment does so at his peril, and may be haled before a court of competent jurisdiction therefor. If the Irish minority have no such remedy, it is difficult to see how the Irish Parliament can be kept within its powers. Under the present bill the Crown is to have a veto on Irish legislation, which was not granted in 1886, and the control of the judiciary is to remain for five years under the control of the Imperial Government.

The principal changes are the retention of the land question, of the police and of the judiciary for five years by the Imperial Parliament; the continued presence of the Irish members in both houses of Parliament; the positive prohibition of customs duties; the division of the proposed Legislature into separate bodies; the disappearance of the peers from the upper house within a fixed period; the veto of the Crown; and the reduction of the Irish

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

contribution to the National Treasury. As to the value of these new features in abating English hostility to the bill, it is difficult to form an opinion. But it is obvious that each new precaution furnishes materials for a fresh attack, because every political arrangement whatever contains some reasons for thinking it cannot be successfully carried out. Every constitution that was ever put on paper was open to the general objection that the human nature—always the unknown quantity in political problems—of those who were to live under it, would prevent its success; and a prophet cannot be refuted.

Correspondence.

BRAINERD'S INDEX TO VON HOLST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With some reluctance I request you to print a few lines from me on T. H. Brainerd's Index to my 'Constitutional and Political History of the United States.' Some people may consider my opinion of it but an *ex-parte* testimony, and, therefore, I am loath to intrude it upon the public. But I do not feel at liberty to consult only my own wishes. I consider it my duty towards the indexer to state that the severe strictures on his work in No. 1438 of the *Nation* are, in my opinion, calculated to produce a wrong impression. Mr. Brainerd has not adopted the usual plan, and I can easily understand that the course pursued by him is highly objectionable to a rigorously systematic mind. If, in the sub-entries, he had simply marched up the volumes in their regular order, beginning with i. and ending with vii., he would have saved himself much time and trouble, and no objection would have been made, because it is the usual way. Those, however, who are to use the Index would very often have lost a great deal of time. It will suffice to give one instance by way of illustration. To go over all the sub-entries under *Jefferson* down to vii., 340, to get at his views concerning the inherent Federal right of coercing States, would be rather hard; under the sub-heading "State Rights," they are found at a glance.

But, if I understand the critic correctly, this arrangement by volumes and number of page is not what he would have wished. He pleads for a "topical and chronological" grouping. But can that be carried out with perfect clearness and consistency, if the Index is to be, at the same time, complete? I have never yet seen it done, and to my mind it seems, in the nature of things, impossible to do it. That, I think, ought to be kept in mind in passing judgment on the "confusion" with which Mr. Brainerd's arrangement is charged. That Mr. Brainerd could not expect to meet with general approval as to every detail, where he found it impossible to adopt the alphabetical order, goes without saying. Upon a close inspection one will, however, soon become convinced that also in these parts he has not proceeded in quite a hap-hazard way, but laid down some leading ideas as guiding lines, which he tries to follow as closely and consistently as the case will allow.

The opinion that "the alphabetical order is of no value whatever, as a rule," I do not share. To me it does not seem "purely subjective"—if I do not mistake the meaning which the critic intends to convey by this term—but in a high degree "topical." At all events, I find it very "*übersichtlich*," and it is a great saving of time to me. But, whatever the objections may be to which Mr. Brainerd may have justly laid himself open, to me he has rendered a great service. Thus far the Index has never failed to render me the help I required of it, and I trust that those who do me the honor of referring now and then to my work—the critic of the *Nation* included—will likewise find it a most valuable aid. I thank the critic sincerely for the compliment implied in his opinion that I ought to have been better served; but that cannot prevent me from considering myself well enough served to feel profoundly grateful to Mr. Brainerd.—Very respectfully,

H. von Holst.

Chicago, January 24, 1893.

[Our confessed reluctance to criticise at all, together with our ever-present sense of lack of space, kept us from enlarging upon the defects of Mr. Brainerd's Index, but we thought we gave an example that was conclusive against his systematic ability, at least on the side of chronology. We by no means should have approved "marching up the volumes in their regular order," and it is the prime merit of Mr. Brainerd's work that he discarded anything so mechanical; our complaint is that he did not know how to use his freedom.

As regards the alphabetical arrangement of the sub-entries, let us open at random to pp. 112, 113 (*Forsyth—Free Soil Party*). Not one of the six longer titles shows this arrangement perfectly carried out, and only one (*France*) shows it attempted, and here we actually have the letter A (Aix-la-Chapelle) at the very end. The same title illustrates what we meant by purely subjective alphabetizing, for the first (and it is a dislocated) entry is "strained relations under John Adams," while half-way down, in its proper place, is "relations with, Pinckney, Marshall, and Gerry fail to reëstablish." No indexer of the present day ought to be told that "relations" and "strained relations" should form but one category—Relations. For further examples see, under *Franklin*, "in Federal convention"; under *Free Press*, "ingrained in American mind"; under *Free Soil Party*, "does not poll the Free Soil vote": such entries, which are quite suitable to a logical or chronological arrangement, have no reason at all for being alphabetized. As a matter of fact, Mr. Brainerd has not tried to alphabetize them, but neither has he disposed them logically. Let us recast one of the titles in question, omitting the numerical references. Mr. Brainerd's jumble is this:

Free Press, and slavery incompatible.
constitution insures.
poem on southern opposition to.
ingrained in American mind.
Jackson assumes to protect.

We propose, with a saving in space, as well as a gain in logic and in elegance:

Free Press, ingrained in American mind; Constitution insures; Jackson assumes to protect; incompatible with slavery; poem on Southern opposition to.

The rubric *Jefferson*, to which Dr. von Holst refers approvingly, is a striking illustration of Mr. Brainerd's faults. The first thirteen entries are not alphabetized; all the rest are. Among the former, "character" and "covert fighter" are separated by another entry ("Rousseau's influence on"), and we meet with such inept entries as "error and reason" and "freedom requires bloodshed." In the alphabetized portion occurs "embargo," with this secondary entry, "wise in Napoleon's eyes," which is of doubtful pertinency under *Jefferson*. Still, it ought to be found under the main rubric *Embargo*, but it is not there, nor under *Napoleon*.

We forbear. Whether the index we had ideated is possible or not, no school of librarians would award Mr. Brainerd a diploma for his index.—Ed. Nation.]

THE LORD'S DAY IN THE PRIMITIVE CHURCH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "H." truly says that, "in the early Church, Sunday and the Sabbath were never confused." But it is equally true that the Lord's Day was constantly regarded as the analogue and successor of the Sabbath. Ignatius, one of the earliest writers referred to (Mag. 9), brings out this truth emphatically when he speaks of Jewish converts "*no longer* observing Sabbaths, *but* living according to the Lord's Day." What less can this mean than that they are to observe the Lord's Day instead of the Sabbath?

So in the Epistle of Barnabas (c. 15), the author, commenting on the message of God by Isaiah (i. 14), says: "Ye perceive how He speaks: Your present sabbaths are not acceptable to me; but that is which I have made, (namely) when giving rest to all things, I shall make a beginning of the eighth day, that is, a beginning of another world. Wherefore, also, *we keep the eighth day* with joyfulness, the day on which Jesus rose from the dead." Here the observance of the eighth day, or the first day of the week, is made the complement of the rejection of the seventh. The exposition may be faulty, but the writer is competent to testify to the usage and teaching of his own day.

Irenaeus expressly teaches that the Decalogue, in distinction from "the law of bondage," or the national law, is of universal obligation, but with an extended interpretation, such as our Lord Himself gave to the Commandments. Thus he says (Against Heresies, iv. 8), "The Lord Himself did speak in His own person *to all alike* the words of the Decalogue; and therefore in like manner do *they remain permanently with us*, receiving, by means of His advent in the flesh, *extension and increase*, but *not abrogation*." In what sense could the IVth Commandment be of moral obligation, in his view, unless it was applied to the Lord's Day?

Origen is perfectly explicit in applying this principle of interpretation to the IVth Commandment. In a Homily (23) on Numbers, he says:

"It behooves every one of the saints and every righteous person to celebrate also the festival of the Sabbath. But what is the festival of the Sabbath but that of which the Apostle says, 'There will remain, therefore, a sabbatism,' that is, an observance of the Sabbath, 'to the people of God'? *Leaving*, therefore, *the Jewish observances* of the Sabbath,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

let us see what ought to be *for a Christian* the observance of the Sabbath. On the Sabbath day, nothing of all the actions of the world ought to be wrought. If, then, you cease from all secular works and carry on nothing worldly, but occupy yourself with spiritual works, go to church, lend your ear to the divine lessons and homilies, and think of heavenly things, exercise care for the future life, have before your eyes the judgment to come, look not to the present and visible things but to the invisible future—this is the observance of *the Christian Sabbath*" (Migne II., 358).

It is in vain that Hessey has endeavored to explain away this passage. Origen was not so foolishly transcendental as to make an ideal Christian cease for life from all secular works, and occupy himself only with spiritual works and going to church and the like. He is not peculiar in the idea that the Lord's Day is virtually a Christian Sabbath, though he is the first to use the term. The testimonies we have already given point in the same direction. If to some minds there is a seeming contradiction in the term, the idea was fully sanctioned in the Primitive Church.

Eusebius speaks very plainly to the same purpose. In his commentary on the "Psalm of Song for the Sabbath day" (title, Ps. 92), he writes:

"Wherefore those things [the Levitical regulations] having been already rejected, *the Logos* through the New Covenant *transferred and changed the festival of the Sabbath* to the rising of the sun, and delivered to us an image of the true rest, the salutary and *Lord's Day* and first day of the light. . . . On which day, . . . we ourselves coming together after an interval of six days, and keeping as festival *holy and spiritual Sabbaths*, we that from among the Gentiles have been ransomed *throughout the whole habitable world*, accomplish according to the spiritual law the things ordained by the law for the priests to do on the Sabbath" (Migne V. 1191, C).

What can be plainer? But he only says substantially what others said before him.

The Ante-Nicene Church, then, to go no further, agreed in teaching that the Lord's Day, as the very name implies, derived its authority from the Lord Jesus Christ, through His Apostles, and rested upon the fact of His resurrection; and that the Fourth Commandment, as a part of the moral law, and as interpreted by Christ and applied to the Lord's Day, is universally binding. E. P. G.

BALTIMORE.

ACCREDITED SCHOOLS AND THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In *School and College* for November, President Eliot is reported as having said, at the October meeting of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, that "In California the inspection of approved schools is better than elsewhere in the country; but there each school is visited but once in three years, and at best by but one or two examiners for a day."

Is it the system of accrediting practised by the University of California that is here referred to? And if so, has President Eliot been misquoted, or did we fail, in March last, to give him correct information concerning our system of accrediting, or has he inadvertently mixed some of the ingredients of other systems with ours? Any statement purporting to describe the frequency and scope of the examinations of secondary schools as conducted by the University of California should read somewhat as follows:

In California every accredited school is visited every year, and by a number of examiners equal to the number of important subjects, or groups of subjects, taught in the school. Thus, to a school asking for full accrediting, whether for the first time or through the required yearly reapplication, is regularly sent one examiner (a specialist, of course) in each of the following subjects: English, Mathematics, History, Latin, Greek, Science (Physics and Chemistry). In rare cases, but for adequate reasons acceptable to our standing committee on schools, an examiner has based his report to this committee upon the examination of a previous year.

An extended account of the University of California system, its methods of procedure and its results, is contained in the December issue of the *Overland Monthly*, pages 594–599.

IRVING STRINGHAM, Dean.

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY,
January 23, 1893.

CH'NAI—SNY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In his discussion of the word *Snibar*, in No. 1438 (January 19, 1893), p. 50, Dr. Elliott Coues concludes that "chenai" is "a misprint for *chenal*, slough." I cannot agree with him, for the following reasons:

(1.) Though the index to the 'Account, etc.,' of Long's expedition (Philadelphia, 1823, 2 vols.) has "Chenal au Barre," I find at page 102 of the first volume this passage:

"Four miles from this place they crossed the Little Tabeau, and at evening pitched their tent on a stream called the Little Chneij au Barre, about a mile and a half from the Missouri. Here is a good mill seat. The Great and Little Chneij au Barre are two creeks entering the Missouri about a mile and a half from each other. Before the mouths of these two creeks is a large island; the slough or *chneij* dividing this island from the shore received the additional name of Au Barre from a hunter known by that appellation, who was lost here for some time, successively ascending the two creeks, which he mistook for the Missouri; hence the name of Chneij au Barre island, Great and Little Chneij au Barre creek, etc."

(2.) The French-Canadians of northeastern Ontario and those on the Quebec side of the river Ottawa habitually term the channel dividing an island from the shore a *ch'nai* or *ch'nail*, which is recognized as being identical with French *chenal*.

(3.) The English-speaking population of the district just referred to have taken the word *ch'nai* into their vocabulary in the form *sny*, with the meaning unchanged.

It would seem, therefore, that in writing *Chneij*, Long was but endeavoring to reproduce the *ch'nai'* of the old French-Canadian voyageurs and traders, who have left tokens of their presence by hill and stream in the Northwestern States—names which find their ready explanation from the study of the dialect and topography of French Canada. The investigation of French Canadian topographical names has scarcely been begun, but what little has been accomplished already proves that the subject is one of great interest historically and linguistically. ALEX. F. CHAMBERLAIN.

CLARK UNIVERSITY, WORCESTER, MASS.,
January 23, 1893.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT CO. have nearly ready the tenth and final volume of the new 'Chambers's Encyclopædia.'

Charles H. Sergel & Co., Chicago, are about to issue the second volume in their "Latin American Republics Series," the subject being Chili, and the author Anson Uriel Hancock; and an authorized edition of Paul Bourget's 'Cosmopolis,' to which, however, Tait, Sons & Co. in this city also lay claim.

'Hume,' by Prof. J. H. Hyslop, is the forthcoming volume in Ginn & Co.'s "Ethical Series."

Burr Brothers, 114 Nassau Street, New York, will publish a limited edition of 'The Life and Works of Alexander Anderson, M.D., the First American Wood Engraver,' by Frederic M. Burr. It will make a large octavo volume, printed from type, and illustrated. Twenty-five of the 750 copies will be on parchment vellum.

Mr. Francis Darwin has compressed into one volume the 'Life and Letters' of his father, under the title, 'Charles Darwin: His Life told in an autobiographical chapter and in a selected series of published letters' (Appletons). This task has been skilfully performed with an eye to the general reader, by omitting the more purely scientific letters and retrenching others in the same class. The incomparable autobiographic chapter has of course been left intact, and we regret that Mr. Francis Darwin's own reminiscences have been curtailed even to the slight extent that they have. There is a portrait of his father in his old age after a photograph by Mrs. Cameron. A handsomer and not less legible page could have been made by the use of smaller type. In fact, though this is by no means a flagrant instance, we have here an illustration of the mischievous working of the manufacturing clause of the Copyright Act: the absence of international competition in good bookmaking compels Americans to put up with the cheapest and poorest that the American publisher offers them.

'Dod's Peerage' for 1893 (London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan) marks its fifty-third year, and shows a slight increase in bulk due to necessary additions which are to be detected in every part of this standard publication.

The Castle of Vincigliata in the environs of Florence is one of the best-known sights to tourists, since it is a brand-new restoration upon the old feudal lines and in the old feudal spirit of construction and decoration, and contains, besides, a notable collection of antiquities. This monument owes its existence to a rich and enthusiastic Englishman, Mr. Temple Leader, and has been made the subject of a descriptive catalogue. Fragments of statuary, etc., from the neglected Orti Oricellari within the city limits having made their way to the castle, "Leader Scott" (Mrs. Baxter) was led in January of last year to publish an historic sketch of these gardens, certainly one of the most famous spots that Florence can boast, and the former seat of that Plato Academy which drew together the wit and learning and fashion of the Republic from 1462 to 1522, and among other products gave birth to Italian opera. Her sketch served, doubtless, to fix public attention on the gardens, and, when these were on the point of being cut up for building purposes, the Government interposed to declare them a national monument. The sketch is now handsomely reprinted, with a plan of the gardens, together with an enlarged catalogue of the antiquities in Vincigliata Castle ('The Orti Oricellari,' etc.; Florence: G. Barbèra). The typography is remarkably free from errors, and the presswork noticeable for the exact register of the rubricated border.

We have been unavoidably delayed in noticing 'In and Out of Three Normandy Inns,' by

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Anna Bowman Dodd, which is issued by Lovell, Coryell & Co. in a limited *édition de luxe* of 500 copies with white illuminated cover and red sheath, good paper and print, and many half-tone illustrations after Reinhart and other artists or from photographs. It is a pleasant piece of the modern, impressionistic-descriptive style of writing, and is likely to afford considerable enjoyment of a mild kind. The author's search for effect sometimes leads her into curious inconsistencies, as when within five pages the same person's hair is described as black and as of the color of butter (pp. 21, 26), or when another figure is described, within nine lines, as clad in a "close jersey" and in "an unbleached chemise, widely open at the throat" (p. 39).

Dietz's 'Italie—Espagne' (Paris: Armand Colin) is, according to its title-page, a history of Italian and Spanish literature, with biographical notes and illustrative extracts; but it is more a text-book or compendium for a *lycée* than a serious work on the history of literature. Compared with others of its class, however, it is by no means bad. The narrative is clear, the extracts usually well selected, and there is a good index for each of the literatures concerned. Now and then M. Dietz makes bad blunders—as when he credits the inauthentic chronicles of Matteo Spinello and Ricordano Malespini with sundry antique virtues of style and thought, or states that Cecco d'Ascoli was burned alive for speaking lightly of Dante; but as a whole the book is not inaccurate, and gives a fairly good bird's-eye view of the entire field.

Ronca's 'Cultura medioevale e poesia latina d'Italia nei secoli XI. e XII.,' in two volumes (Rome: Società Laziale), is certainly not a final statement of the peculiar characteristics of life and culture in Italy in the last of the middle ages, but it at least puts into the hands of the student, either of comparative literature or of the rise of Italian literature, a larger body of information about the period in question than has probably yet been contained in any one work. More than a third of the first volume concerns mediæval culture and literature in general; the remainder treats of the culture and literature of Italy in particular, from the point of view not only of content, but also of grammar, vocabulary, and prosody. The second volume is a bibliographical dictionary of the authors mentioned. The whole work, unfortunately, though in detail clearly written, is somewhat weak in its larger structure and sorely needs a topical index.

A posthumous volume of unusual interest is Victor Hehn's 'De Moribus Ruthenorum: Zur Characteristik der russichen Volksseele' (Stuttgart: Cotta). It consists of leaves from the diary kept by Hehn during his sojourn in Russia from 1857 to 1873, and is a record partly of personal experiences and observations, but still more of philosophical reflections and ethno-psychological studies, pursued under very favorable circumstances, and showing remarkable keenness of insight. It is written in a pungent and paragraphic style, and contains more quotable things than any other book recently published in Germany.

It seems somewhat strange that only now appears a second edition of the authorized German translation of Darwin's 'Journal of a Voyage' ('Reise eines Naturforschers um die Welt,' Stuttgart).

The first volume, containing 'Gabriel Conroy,' of a new Danish translation of Bret Harte's complete works has recently appeared in Copenhagen. The translator is Fr. Winkel Horn, an industrious laborer in the English-Danish field. The early press notices give every indication of the success of the undertaking.

The publishing-house of Luigi Battei at Parma announces a new periodical, *Rivista critica e bibliografica della letteratura dantesca*. The new review will be issued monthly under the direction of Prof. G. L. Passerini; its contents, as its name indicates, will be entirely critical and bibliographical. The price of subscription is eight *lire* a year. Another periodical, covering somewhat the same ground, *L'Alighieri*, has been in existence for several years. Its founder and editor, Signor F. Pasqualigo, has recently died, but the publishers announce that the journal will be continued under able direction.

The quarterly *Archæologia Oxoniensis* (London: Henry Frowde) appeared last year in an undated Part I., of which the two leading papers relate to prehistoric Oxford, and are accompanied by illustrations of pottery and a map of the town. F. Haverfield begins a series of "Materials for Romano-British Epigraphy," and the pre-Norman and other early work lately discovered in Christ Church Cathedral is discussed by J. P. Harrison. The news department is not confined to Oxford in its survey of recent archæological discoveries. Extracts from the proceedings of societies, with lists of additions of relics to the Ashmolean Museum and of archæological and architectural books to the Bodleian Library, conclude the contents.

The *Geographical Journal*, as the official publication of the Royal Geographical Society is now called, opens with Dr. Nansen's paper descriptive of his bold scheme for crossing the North Polar region, to which we have already referred. The discussion which followed the reading of the paper before the Society is interesting as giving the views of several eminent Arctic explorers. Among these were Admiral Sir L. McClintock, who spoke rather favorably; Sir George Nares, who believed that wind would be more likely to drift the *Fram* to the west than the current to the north; Sir E. Inglefield, who gave a striking instance in his own experience of the rapid current drift from Siberia to the North American Coast; and Sir George Richards, who was very sceptical as to the existence of a northern current. Sir Allen Young thought that the great danger to contend with would be the land in nearly every direction near the Pole, while in Sir Joseph Hooker's opinion, "the success of such an enterprise would not justify the exposure of valuable lives for its attainment." The remainder of the *Journal*, which, considered with reference to its increased size and broadened scope, is slightly disappointing, is taken up with a description of the principal New Zealand glaciers, a brief account of Lieut. Ryder's East Greenland expedition, several short articles, and a record of geographical information and literature.

The condition of the university students of India has been made the subject of a recent minute by Sir Charles Elliott, the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. The three great universities of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, which control the higher education of the empire, are simply examining bodies after the model of the London University system. While exerting a profound influence upon the character of the educated classes, they acknowledge no responsibility for the conditions, whether good or evil, amid which the student acquires the knowledge to enable him to pass his examinations. In Calcutta, for instance, Sir Charles says there are 4,000 students for whom "not so much care is taken of their living in healthy and decent surroundings as is taken by Government for the pilgrims to Jagannath." The great problem to which he invites the attention of all interested in the subject is how to make university influence and university responsibility go hand-in-hand. He urges especially upon every professsor and teacher of the Government colleges and schools the acceptance of this principle, "that his relations to the students should not begin and end in the lecture-room, but that he should endeavor out of school hours to acquire their confidence and obtain an influence over them which should last through their lives."

Since the National Weather Bureau was placed under the direction of the Department of Agriculture, the publication of bulletins, suspended for some years past, has been resumed. Five have thus far been issued: The Climate of Death Valley, Cal., by Prof. Harrington, Chief of the Bureau; Magnetic Observations, by Prof. Bigelow of the Bureau; Relations of Soil to Climate, by Prof. Hilgard of California; Physical Properties of Soils, by Prof. Whitney of the Maryland Agricultural College; Movements of Ground-water, by Prof. King of Wisconsin University. The last two are the most novel of the series. The degree of fineness of soils is shown to have a controlling influence on their behavior under agricultural operations, and the method of treatment of unfavorable textures is foreshadowed. The report on the movements of ground-water is based on a series of carefully conducted experiments, and reveals among other matters a surprising sensitiveness to changes of atmospheric pressure, by which the yield of wells and springs is to some extent found to be determined. In connection with the first-named Bulletin we can recommend for instruction and entertainment 'Illustrated Sketches of Death Valley and Other Borax Deserts of the Pacific Coast,' by John R. Spears (Rand, McNally & Co.).

It is but a short time since fossils of the birds were of the most rare. Twenty years ago a fossil feather was quite sufficient to create a sensation among ornithologists. Gradually, however, the number of known forms has been increased until the list has now reached a considerable length. A late publication by Dr. R. W. Shufeldt, in the Journal of the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences, vol. ix., "A Study of the Fossil Avifauna of the Equus Beds of the Oregon Desert," enumerates and describes about fifty species, of some twenty-five genera. Two gulls, a goose, a brant, a heron, a flamingo, three grouse, two hawks, a blackbird, and a crow are said to be new to science. Excepting a few types that became extinct, and comparing the fossil with the recent, the author decides that the birds of the later tertiary time were simply the direct ancestors of existing genera and species of birds; the latter having, in most instances at least, made little, if any, osteological departure. Separately the essay is a quarto pamphlet of thirty-six pages and three plates.

"A New Cretaceous Bird Allied to Hesperornis," *Coniornis altus*, is described and figured by Prof. O. C. Marsh in the *American Journal of Science*, vol. xlv., January, 1893. In the same number also this author has an article on "The Skull and Brain of Claosaurus," a cretaceous dinosaur, in which descriptions and figures are given of skull, brain, and teeth; and in the February number he has a "Restoration of Anchisaurus," a dinosaurian reptile that may have made some or many of the so-called "bird tracks" of the Connecticut River sandstones.

The report (December 5, 1892) of General

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Casey, Chief of Engineers, U. S. A., on the state of construction of the new building for the Library of Congress is accompanied by a large photographic view taken from the northwest corner on November 8, 1892. From the progress anticipated during the coming year, one might suppose that partial occupation would be possible in 1895.

At the election of officers for 1893 by the Graduate Association of Yale, the vice-president and three of the executive committee chosen were women. Such action is a prompt and logical endorsement by the students themselves of the extension of post-graduate privileges to women.

—"The Women's Suffrage Calendar for 1893" (London) supplies some suggestive information, in compact shape, regarding the work and activities of the present generation of English women. Glancing through its pages, we are reminded that, in this year of grace, the well-born English maiden whose aspirations soar beyond the county-belledom and London-season triumphs of her compeers, finds open to her several well-beaten paths of personal honor and public usefulness. Under limitations doomed to speedy extinction, she can share with her brothers the educational advantages of the leading universities of Great Britain and Ireland, and can, with public approval, serve her fellows as professor, doctor, trained nurse, poor-law guardian, school commissioner, etc. We are reminded that the local ballot is in the hands of all rate-paying women, and that within a year the bill to extend the Parliamentary franchise to such women was lost by a very small majority—the leaders of the historic Conservative party being found among the members of Parliament voting "Aye." The list of "gains" in 1892 for the woman's cause records the election of women school commissioners in Canada, the extension of parish suffrage to women in Guernsey, the first appointment of a woman (and she an American) as lecturer on law at the coeducational University of Zurich, the opening of the Scotch universities to women, their admission to the Ancient Order of Foresters, to the Royal Geographical Society, and to the British Medical Association, their appointment as Government medical officers in the Austrian provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and finally the passage of a woman-suffrage bill by the New Zealand Legislature, although the original bill was so handicapped by "conditions" in the Legislative Council that it was, as amended, rejected by the lower house. When we remember that it is barely a decade since the municipal franchise was generally extended to women in Great Britain, that women were only admitted to the Cambridge Tripos Examinations in 1881, and to the Oxford Locals in 1884, and that Sydney University did not confer a degree on a woman until 1885, we can better gauge the growth in popular British opinion shown by the following appointments of women during the year ending October, 1892: as assistant physician to the Workhouse Infirmary, Manchester; resident physician, Smallpox Hospital Ship, London; physician to the Edinburgh School Board; resident physician, Victoria Hospital for Children, Hull; visitor to three lunatic asylums, Cape of Good Hope Colony; meteorologist Hong Kong Observatory (Government appointment); three associate professorships in the coeducational institutions, the Royal University of Ireland and the University of Sydney; and the addition, by the Home Secretary, of four women as assistant commissioners on the Labor Commission created by the last Parliament. Several of these innovations have been already announced in our columns.

—A somewhat rambling essay by the late Theodore Child introduces Clara Bell's translation of Firenzuola's dialogue, 'Of the Beauty of Women' (London: Osgood, McIlvaine & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). Firenzuola was a typical Italian man of letters at the period of the later Renaissance—versatile, witty, and graceful, with a superficial but genuine admiration for antiquity and a marked contempt for all mediæval notions. He won distinction in criticism, in both branches of the drama, in poetry, in the *novella*, and in translation, as one of the ripest and most cultivated spirits of his time. The dialogue before us, which shows him at his best, is one of the most interesting of the half-dozen treatises on feminine beauty that are so characteristic of the time. The author, under the thin disguise of a certain Celso, discusses the various "points" of beauty which the ideal woman should possess, first with a band of youths and women, in the garden of the Abbey of Grignano at Prato, and afterwards with the same pleasant company at the house of a certain Madonna Lampiada. The first discourse concerns Plato's theory of beauty and love and certain of its applications, and gives a general outline of the subject and a discussion of the signification of the terms most frequently used in connection with feminine beauty. Love is the quest of beauty, the beauty of women "an earnest of heavenly things, an image and simulacrum of the joys of heaven." Wherefore, says Celso, in order "not to go up there [to heaven] and seem like a rustic when first he seeth a town, and not to have then to learn the contemplation of things beautiful, I exercise myself here as best I may, by gazing on these fair faces." The second discourse considers in detail the eyes and the eyebrows, the eyelashes, the ears, the neck and bosom, the shoulders and arms, the chin, the teeth, the gums, and even the tip of the tongue. The whole treatise thus throws light on the ideals of beauty then in vogue, and is a suggestive commentary on contemporary painting as well as the other arts. The brilliant and vivacious style of the original is, on the whole, satisfactorily reproduced in the translation.

—Referring to an extract in our recent review of Blades's 'Books in Chains,' a correspondent writes: "Blades says: 'When a book was given to a mediæval library, it was necessary, in the first place, to employ a painter to *write the name and class-mark across the fore-edge*.' But no such necessity is apparent except to persons acquainted with a very peculiar and long-forgotten bibliothecal custom, namely, that of ranging books with their backs against the wall. During a Spanish tour in 1867, the writer saw this custom still predominant in the library of the Escorial—where he also saw a crowd of monks still praying for the soul of Philip II. The names of books were written either on clasps running across the fore-edges or on labels, sometimes projecting from leaves on which they were pasted, or dangling from strings which would also serve as book-marks. The oddity of this arrangement led the tourist to take down a volume. Facing outward, it was ready for opening as soon as drawn from the shelf, and needed no turning around. This style of placement, which seems at first absurd, may be, after all, better than that now in vogue. It may have been devised by a lazy monk, but it is clearly labor-saving, and may be worth reviving in modern libraries where the volumes demanding consultation are more and more multitudinous. No obstacles which can be removed ought to be left to obstruct the highways and by-ways of research."

—"Some time after the visit above mentioned to the Escorial," continues our correspondent, "the strange reversal of what had come to be considered the natural position of books on a shelf was several times discussed in the London *Notes and Queries*. An Austrian ambassador, when interviewed at Athens, spoke of the volumes in the Escorial as standing with their cut edges towards the spectators. Then a British writer, while incidentally admitting this fact, aimed chiefly to discredit other statements of the Austrian. Further research showed that the Escorial placement was of long standing, probably dating from the building of the palace, the most costly pile, according to Prescott, ever finished by one man. An Italian visitor in 1650 wrote that the gilt-edged leaves of the tomes (not much thumbed perhaps) 'made the hall where they were stored look as if clothed with gold from roof to floor.' It was further discovered that the Escorial arrangement was a survival of a fashion once prevalent far and wide. Engravings contemporary with Calvin and other scholars of various countries in their libraries showed their books with their backs to the wall. Not a few volumes in ancient libraries, especially in Birmingham and Ripon, showed plain tokens that they were intended to stand, as we should say, wrong side before. Carvings in stone and ever-during brass were found which pointed the same way. One was in York Minster. It is noteworthy how a custom dominant for ages will vanish so as to seem absurd and incredible to most men, while still flourishing in a kingdom where it is proverbial that Adam, if he were to rise from his grave, would find everything just as he left it. Such disclosures are the zest of Spanish travel. In the sixties that zest was still keener than now."

—It is not very likely that so deliberately repulsive a writer as M. J. K. Huysmans (in spite of all his vigor and learning) often is, has found many American readers. But the curious few who have read 'À Rebours' and 'Là-Bas' will hear with a certain interest of the recent death, at Lyons, of the Abbé Boulan, the "docteur Johannès" of the last-named novel. The Abbé, in his earlier years, was appointed director of a convent of nuns whom he led into the devotions and practices of the highest mystical theology. The usual results followed: some of the nuns became inspired, and some bewitched. Boulan was condemned, first by his Archbishop and afterwards by Rome, and, upon contumacy, was excommunicated. He returned to France and devoted himself to the study and practice of occultism for benevolent ends. He found, however, that the world was no more sympathetic than the Church, since it sent him to jail for the illegal practice of medicine. He seems to have been a hypnotist born out of due time. He undoubtedly wrought many cures by his occult force, or by his patients' faith in it. In severe cases he resorted to a sort of benevolent parody of the Christian sacrifice—a sort of White Mass, one might call it, in contradistinction to the Black Mass of the Kabalists. It was, in fact, to the White Magic that he devoted his life, and he believed himself to have been often assailed by the men and demons of the Black Art. There is nothing very harmful in such mild insanities as these, except to the subject of them, and the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Abbé Boulan, when one considers his sincerity, shows not unfavorably when set beside the absurd modern Mages, and Sârs, and Brothers of the Rose+Croix.

—Lunar photography, begun by the elder Draper in 1840, continued by his son Henry and by Rutherfurd in New York, and more recently at Harvard, has culminated in a splendid series of negatives procured with the thirty-six-inch telescope of the Lick Observatory. Many of the originals (of nearly six inches in diameter) are technically perfect enough to bear enlargement to six feet, while Mr. W. Prinz of the Royal Belgian Observatory has made photographic amplifications of the lunar crater Copernicus from these negatives to a scale on which the moon's diameter would exceed thirty feet. These fine photographs, rivalling the classic handiwork of Maedler, Schmidt, and Lohrmann, are secondary only in this, that the very small craters are sometimes indistinctly registered by photography. The Lick negatives of the moon have been industriously studied by Prof. Weinek of Prague, who has discovered new rills and craters, and elaborated a beautiful series of enlarged drawings which, reproduced by heliogravure, form the most perfect detail pictures of lunar scenery yet produced. The moon's ordinary surface and structure, apparently volcanic in the main, is best seen at or near the time of quadrature, under oblique illumination. But the lunar rills or streaks, difficult to observe when the shadows of the mountains are most conspicuous, and very prominent when the shadows are imperceptible, demand a front illumination for their visibility. Theoretically, the material of the streak surface must, as pointed out by Dr. Copeland, Astronomer Royal for Scotland, be made up of multitudes of surfaces more or less completely spherical, but either concave or convex; and he therefore regards the streaks as produced by a material pitted with minute cavities of spherical figure, or strewn with minute solid spheres. Prof. W. H. Pickering, on recent critical investigation of the rill systems (with a thirteen-inch telescope at an elevation of 8,000 feet at Arequipa, Peru), finds that the streaks of the system surrounding Tycho and other craters radiate, not from the centre of the ring mountains, but from a multitude of craterlets upon their rims. Also, there are not, as heretofore supposed, any streaks hundreds or even thousands of miles long, but their usual length varies from ten to fifty miles, while they seldom exceed one-quarter mile in breadth at the crater. In the volcanic region surrounding Arequipa, the roads are in some places partially covered with a white pumice-like material, and its behavior under different inclinations of the line of illumination to the line of vision has led Prof. Pickering to a conclusion quite identical with that of Dr. Copeland, that the general appearance of the streaks is most readily explained by the hypothesis of a light-colored powder extending away from the craterlets. The only farther step necessary to a completely satisfactory explanation of these mysterious markings is a reasonable elucidation of the process by which this powder has come to be radially disposed.

ALLAN'S ARMY OF NORTHERN VIRGINIA.

The Army of Northern Virginia in 1862. By William Allan, A.M., LL.D., late Principal of McDonogh School, Maryland, formerly Lieutenant Colonel, &c., A. N. V. With an Introduction by John C. Ropes, author of 'The Army Under Pope,' etc. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 8vo, pp. x, 537.

One of the most gratifying features of the historical discussion of the civil war is the fair play which is allowed to writers on both sides. A new book by a Southern writer is cordially welcomed by the most earnest Northern men and finds its way into Northern libraries, public and private, without delay. This new history of the campaigns in Virginia and Maryland in 1862 comes before the world with a most cordial introduction by Mr. Ropes, himself the historian of an important part of the same period. Mr. Ropes, with a spirit of broadest liberality, vouches for the ability and the honesty of the Southern writer, though the latter combats vigorously some of his own published conclusions. He says of Col. Allan: "Allowance must always be made, even when considering the views of the most judicial minds, for the bias which inevitably results from adopting heartily and earnestly one side in a great conflict of opinion and of arms. But the Northern reader will find in the pages before us an impartial spirit and a love of the exact truth characterizing the entire performance of the work."

The differences between National and Confederate writers have greatly diminished with the progress of time, and especially with the progressive publication of the official records of the war. The evidence on many points is so much more complete than it was a few years ago that no reputable author can ignore it, and the influence of the "bias" which Mr. Ropes speaks of is greatly narrowed as to its field. It is still possible to accept the testimony of our own side in preference to that of an enemy, where the two are contradictory, or to select the most favorable of several possible theories when we discuss the conduct of our friends. In questions of numbers we may use the smallest given by respectable authority to our own forces and the largest admitted by our opponents as to their own. We may see the acts of our heroes through the rosy medium of our loving admiration, and be ready to take the worst view of a leader on the other side, especially if our cause has suffered by his blows. These are perennial blossoms of human nature, and it will take centuries to develop an absolutely judicial investigation.

Col. Allan died before his book was published, and, judging by the foot-note references to authorities, he did not have the advantage of some recent books of capital importance in forming a sound historical judgment of the campaigns he describes. He had evidently analyzed with care the movements of the divisions and brigades of both armies as they are revealed in official reports, and was honestly industrious in trying to avoid conjecture and to base himself on authenticated fact. The points a Northern critic would discuss with him are therefore comparatively few, and we can join heartily in the general praise which Mr. Ropes gives his book. Yet the book is distinctly and manifestly written from the Confederate standpoint, and shows on almost every page the "bias" peculiar to the author's education and sympathies.

The instances which will make this clearest are found in his treatment of McClellan, Lincoln, and Pope. Southern writers are always good "McClellan men," and pretty uniformly back that general in the differences which arose between him and Lincoln's Administration. It is but a little while since a strong party among the old officers and men of the Army of the Potomac did the like; but increased knowledge of the facts has worked a marked change in Northern sentiment. We all know now that the Government gave to McClellan an army greatly superior in numbers, in equipment, in weapons, and in supplies to that which was opposed to him, and that the soldiers, man for man, were every whit as good as Johnston's and Lee's. It was right, therefore, to hold the General responsible for success. Every pretended cause of complaint, on his part, has melted into thin air before these simple and hard facts, and all who are at all intelligent in regard to the war now know it. Our Northern people have taken their bearings accordingly, and we hear no more of the injustice of Lincoln and Stanton towards the General.

Southern writers (even so candid a one as Col. Allan) find it hard to correct their judgment according to this truth. They seem to have a kind of vested interest in McClellan and in the respectable and dignified way in which he was getting our armies regularly beaten, so that they can hardly look upon it as anything less than cruelty to the Confederacy for Mr. Lincoln to remove him from command. We were going so smoothly and decorously through the steps which led, inevitably, to the surrender on our part and the establishment of the independence of the South, with the accustomed stately compliments for the heroic courage and skill shown on both sides, that Lincoln's interference with it all proves his badness of heart! It surely is time that so puerile a way of treating the subject should be put aside.

In Col. Allan's case the incongruity is the more apparent because his fair recognition of all the facts in the premises makes the absurdity of the conclusion stand out in all the stronger relief. He states as clearly as any one that McClellan was, through his whole career as a commander, under the incredible illusion that his opponent's army was more than twice its actual size, and acted upon this belief. Yet Col. Allan enumerates, as showing that "there can be no question that he was badly treated," (1) that he was peremptorily ordered to begin in February, 1862, a campaign which he ought to have begun in September, 1861; (2) that he was relieved of the command of the Western armies so that he might give his whole mind to leading that of the Potomac; (3) that McDowell's corps was retained to defend Washington and repel Jackson, who was let loose in the Shenandoah by the utter feebleness of McClellan's advance in the Peninsula. These complaints became obsolete when the war records disclosed the fact that McClellan not only had his hands full in conducting his own campaign, but that he was held at bay and finally defeated by a much inferior force. Southern writers have yet to learn what we have learned, that Mr. Lincoln was right in all this, and that the only marvel was in his patience, consideration, and kindness in his dealings with his subordinate.

The Southern treatment of Pope is a corollary to that of McClellan. As Pope opened the way in the changes which finally led to the transfer of Grant from the West to the command of all the armies, and especially of the Army of the Potomac, Pope had to bear the brunt of the indignation and disappointment at McClellan's removal. Here also the change which has come in Northern judgment has not reached Southern writers, and Col. Allan goes, perhaps, beyond the average in his depreciation of Pope. He does this, too, although he had under his eye Mr. Ropes's book on that campaign, in which a sounder and much more judicial treatment of the subject is found.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Northern men now understand that Pope, with half the numbers that McClellan had before Richmond, and these partly raw recruits, was driven back upon Washington by the same army (substantially) which had driven McClellan from Gaines's Mill to Harrison's Landing; the same army against which McClellan refused to resume the aggressive unless thirty thousand more men could be added to his already superior forces. Nobody now doubts that Pope's fighting, from Cedar Mountain to Chantilly, was bold and vigorous. When this has been learned, it has become ridiculous to exalt McClellan and to speak contemptuously of Pope. Yet Col. Allan ignores these simple facts, with Mr. Ropes's sound conclusions from them, and rings all the old changes upon Pope, from "braggart" to "blockhead." To do so now is an anachronism.

We have been taught corrections, also, in regard to Pope personally, which Colonel Allan had evidently not learned. Mr. Ropes had exploded the amusing myth about his announcing "headquarters in the saddle," but Col. Allan faithfully repeats it. As to Pope's "bombastic" orders, a simple comparison with a few issued by other officers, South as well as North, will prove that the literary taste of military war orders must be subjected to generic and not specific criticism. For one of his orders, however, Pope was "outlawed" by the Confederate President, though the rapid progress of the campaign prevented its having any practical effect; but as Mr. Ropes has admitted that this one was in conflict with international law, Col. Allan has good support in condemning it. The order was one which directed all male citizens to be sent beyond his lines who would not take the oath of allegiance, and declared that they should be treated as spies if they returned without permission. The order was meant to meet the notorious fact that the systematic and industrious communication with the enemy by citizens made these practically spies. What the laws of civilized warfare tolerate when the hostility of citizens becomes annoying to an army is by no means easy to settle. The practice of armies is much severer than the rules laid down by theorists. Interesting light is thrown on this subject by a very recent book written by Lieut. Birkhimer of our army, and it is fairly debatable, in view of this, whether Pope transgressed the rules recognized by European armies of the present day.*

Since Col. Allan wrote his criticisms, probably, the Life of Stonewall Jackson, by his widow, has appeared; and the fact there revealed that Jackson advocated fighting under the "black flag" and giving no quarter to invaders, will silence all criticism of Pope by Southern men. The practice of Confederate officers in districts which they regarded as rebellious to their Government, *e. g.*, East Tennessee and West Virginia, was quite as harsh as anything complained of by them. In that same year, 1862, the Confederate forces were for a short time in possession of the Great Kanawha valley, and George Summers, known before the war as one of the foremost men of all Virginia, was forced to take the oath of allegiance to the Confederacy by the threat that he would be tied to the tail of a wagon and marched over the mountains on foot to Richmond. An elderly and rather corpulent man, he regarded it as a sentence of death, and took the oath to avoid it. Such things are not lovely to recall, but, if told, they must be told of both sides.

*See Birkhimer's 'Military Government and Martial Law,' chap. viii. (Washington, 1892.)

Another constant discrepancy between Northern and Southern writers is in their statements of the forces engaged. It runs through the whole history of the war. Col. Allan notices in one place the fact that Palfrey, in his history of the Antietam campaign, says that the Confederate accounts exclude their officers in giving numbers, making a difference of about 10 per cent. This, however, has not led him to examine the grounds on which the assertion is made, and he follows the custom of making estimates that will not stand a test. Let us take the battle of Antietam as an example. McClellan failed to crush Lee because he delivered his attacks piecemeal, sending in smaller columns than those which Lee could unite to meet them. His success was, therefore, only partial and incomplete, though we know that his forces were superior. But Col. Allan is not content with this, and repeats the common error of exaggerating the difference. He says, "It was the assault of an army of about 80,000 troops upon one of 35,000."

If we analyze the evidence we have, we find that on the 22d of September, four days after the battle, in the tabulated morning report of Lee's army there were reported 36,416 present for duty. But from this report the cavalry and the reserve artillery are expressly excluded, and two regiments which were in the battle and afterwards detached are also omitted. The casualties at South Mountain and Antietam officially reported were 13,964. These figures enable us to reconstruct the table of Lee's army in the battles as follows:

Report of September 22	36,416
Add cavalry (official report, Oct. 10)	5,761
Reserve artillery (report Sept. 30)	764
Two regiments not reported, say	600
Casualties, South Mountain and Antietam	13,964
Total on September 18	57,505

Of the troops thus included, every regiment and battery is represented in the casualty list, and nothing is estimated but the two regiments of which we find no report of their strength.

It thus turns out that Lee had in Maryland nearly 60,000 men instead of 35,000, as Col. Allan states. The discrepancy is too great to be accounted for in any satisfactory way, as the figures are nearer one-half the force than its true strength. Gen. Palfrey has given in his history strong reasons for putting McClellan's available strength at 70,000 instead of 80,000, which would make the ratio between him and Lee about seven to six; but whether seven or eight, it was a sufficient preponderance if the troops were rightly handled, though not an overwhelming one. Straggling cuts a considerable figure in Col. Allan's as well as in other Southern estimates of Lee's forces, but this was incident to both armies, and cannot properly be made a ground for reducing the figures of either. If either army suffered most from it, it would be McClellan's, for Lee's was retiring in presence of its enemy, and the fear of capture would keep men in the ranks.

As to the official returns of the opposing armies, it certainly seems that an end might be put to controversy. It was the custom in both armies to make reports of strength three times a month, upon blanks furnished by the Adjutant-General's Department. That of the National army was a form containing some fifty ruled columns divided into groups comprising separate statistics of (1) officers and men "present for duty"; (2) present, sick, or in arrest, or on duty taking them out of the ranks, as clerical work, etc.; (3) absent, with or without leave; and (4) aggregates. The last column of the group, "Present for duty," was an "aggregate" of both officers and men in all the other columns of the group.

The Confederate army forms were intended to be an improvement on ours in statistical fulness, and the blank contained some sixty columns, similarly grouped. The group "Present for duty" (a sample is before us as we write) contained, for an army return, thirty-two columns, but no "aggregate" column like that mentioned above, nor is there anywhere upon it a summary of officers and men present for duty. If we pass to the right in the voluminous form, beyond the group of columns for "sick," etc., we find a column marked "effective total," but this contains only the total of men in the ranks, including sergeants and corporals actually carrying muskets, and excluding all commissioned officers and the non-commissioned staff. If the last column of the "Present for duty" be taken as the army strength by a historian examining the returns, he will have only the privates in the ranks, and if he takes the column marked "Effective total" he has only added the non-commissioned officers in the ranks. Let us see what difference this will make. The case before us happens to be the return of Hardee's Army of Tennessee, December 10, 1863. Condensing the columns under "Present for duty," we get:

Officers at army headquarters	230
Officers with divisions and brigades	4,124
Non-commissioned staff	547
Artificers and musicians	655
Sergeants and corporals	7,874
Privates	35,220
Aggregate present for duty	48,650

But, as we have said, this aggregate nowhere appears on the return, and the investigator must make it for himself by adding the footings of thirty-two columns, as we have done. Yet it is the equivalent of the last column of the return "Present for duty" in the form used in the National army. If we run the eye along to the column marked "Effective total," we find the figures to be 43,094, which will be found to be the sum of the last two items only, in the table given above. The difference between this number and the aggregate present for duty as computed by the national form, is 5,556, or nearly 13 per cent. of the "effective total" given in the Confederate returns, which must therefore be increased in that ratio to make an accurate comparison with the National ones.

As everybody knows, most of the archives of the Confederate Government were destroyed, and it is only from remnants accidentally preserved that we can get light. The sample analyzed was obtained from the War Office for another purpose, but we believe it is a perfectly fair sample of such returns. Gen. Hardee was one of the most accomplished and accurate of the Confederate officers. He had been Commandant at West Point before the war, and was the author of the standard 'Tactics' then used in the army. It is therefore safe to say that at his headquarters the army forms were understood and properly used. The controversy has been very often referred to, but we do not know that a detailed analysis of the matter has been published.

While the points thus discussed color the whole of Col. Allan's book, far the greater part of his story is made up of details in regard to which there can be no debate, and where we can follow his clear descriptions and enjoy his calm and temperate tone with unmixed satisfaction. With the exception named, he treats the officers on the National side with courtesy and respect. He is not extravagant in his laudation of his own friends, but shows discrimination in his estimates of them.

In one respect the book has marked supe-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

riority: the maps, printed in colors, are far above those we ordinarily see. They are on a good scale and are sufficiently numerous to illustrate the text well at every important point in the campaigns narrated. That the book is well printed need hardly be said when the imprint of the publishers is noticed.

WOODBERRY'S SHELLEY.—II.

The Complete Poetical Works of Percy Bysshe Shelley. The Text newly collated and revised, and edited with a Memoir and Notes, by George Edward Woodberry. Centenary Edition. In four volumes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892.

If we ask why it is that Mr. Woodberry persists in gently finding fault with everybody else, and in seeing excuses everywhere for Shelley, the answer is very simple, and is the highest compliment to Shelley. It is that the better we know Shelley, the more we read of his life in general, the more we are disposed to love and admire him. In the larger part of his life, his conduct was really angelic; it is impossible, without reading the details of Prof. Dowden's book, to conceive to what an extent the poet was magnanimous, long-suffering, generous, and just. He was not only capable of a noble disinterestedness and of great self-sacrifice for the sake of principle, as when he refused to give his consent to the entailing of his estate, but he was ready constantly with the small change of daily kindness and courtesy which counts up higher, in the long run, than the heroisms and the thousand-pound notes. He was always planning for others, working for others, impoverishing himself to pay other people's debts. His behavior towards Godwin, towards Hunt, to Keats, to Miss Clairmont, is beyond praise. "In natural piety, in purity of motive, in conscientious and unselfish action, Shelley was exceptionally conspicuous." This is Mr. Woodberry's verdict, in one of his essays, and we are quite willing to accept it. No one could help falling in love with the writer of that letter to Mr. William Baxter, a worthy gentleman who, under the frown of his son-in-law, had written to Shelley declining further intercourse between the two families. The courtesy, the friendliness, the charity, the sweet reasonableness of Shelley's reply would in themselves form a sufficient testimonial for any saint or rishi. No one could have written such a document who had not, as the Hindus say, "his passions under complete control." No bishop, no cardinal could have exhibited more perfectly the flower and the graces of Christian charity.

Shelley was, in truth, under exile for his opinions. No poet of his time had to such an extent the courage of his opinions. Coleridge and Wordsworth began with the same radical sentiments, and wavered and changed. Shelley was too serious in his mission for hesitation or change. "I go straight on," said he, "till I am stopped; and I never am stopped." He was in opposition to some rooted sentiments of the society in which he lived. He never liked the study of history, and he had no sense of the meaning and forces of conservatism—of those slow organic processes by which society moves toward a distant goal, and will not be hurried. He felt as if, on the contrary, society were a blank page for him to write his creed on. He belonged to the "Church of the Rebels," as Swinburne said, and it was a church militant. In "Queen Mab," in the "Revolt of Islam," in the "Prometheus," he hurled himself again and again against "the fort unbreachable of the long-battered world"; and he fell back, as might have been expected, bruised and lacerated. He fell under the ban, and hence, in part, his singular destitution of honorable friends, his increasing alienation from English sentiments and ideas. "Pity me," he says, in writing to Peacock, "for my absence from those social enjoyments which England might afford me, and which I know so well how to appreciate. . . . I am regarded by all who know me as a rare prodigy of crime and pollution, whose look even might infect."

A banishment to Italian skies and the museums of Florence was certainly for him the mildest of ostracisms—we owe to it his highest inspiration and his most wonderful pictures; but it is likely that he lost by it not only the comfort and stimulus of high-minded friends, but also some strings from the lyre of his poetry, some chords that are oftenest sounded in the experience of homely English life. Mr. Matthew Arnold calls him a "beautiful and ineffectual angel, beating in the void his luminous wings in vain." The phrase is so melodious that we feel it must be felicitous, yet it is really an unfair and incomplete characterization. For it must be remembered that this angel vanished from our sphere while he was still trying his wings and preparing for his greatest flight. He tried them not so much in the void as in an ethereal region of imagination and description where few, if any, had ascended, and where he alone almost was puissant and at home. Even in the "Prometheus" and in the "Cenci" he was still trying his wings, and yet what a unique achievement each of them represents in the poetry of this century! The "Cenci" was meant, as he said, to be popular; it was weighted, however, from the outset by the monstrosity of the subject and of Count Cenci's character. The pathos and the horror of tragedy rest always on our conviction that we ourselves, under certain circumstances, are capable both of the crime and of the misfortune. When both of these are abnormal, our interest weakens. *Macbeth* we can understand, and *Othello* and *Agamemnon* and even *Medea*—their evil is mixed with relentings and with the shadows of good—they are men and women of like passions and motives with ourselves; but the sheer deviltry of Francesco Cenci lies too far out of our experience and our imagination—it is not merely revolting, it is incredible; and this is the main artistic blemish of a play which provokes no unworthy comparison with Shakspere, and which, with the fine fragment of "Charles the First," reveals unexpected powers and possibilities in one whose genius seemed supremely lyrical.

The "Prometheus Unbound" provokes no comparisons because it is, in some respects, incomparable; it is, as we have said, unique and characteristic in the domain of imagination to which its machinery and its pictures belong, and also in the cause which it advocates. Shelley is, perhaps, the one poet who has written, with inspiration, verses that touch on the new problem of humanity, and that satisfy its altering needs and creeds. It is likely that he had some part in bringing about the reformation of social ideals which we see going on about us; it is likely that in this regard he struck the key-note of the coming century rather than of our own. While Clough and Matthew Arnold and even Browning represented stages of conflict and restlessness and discussion about fading forms and sanctions and creeds, Shelley bounded over all these and attempted to substitute a positive religion of humanity. He had so much faith in this that he became something better and more powerful than an iconoclast. If he could have finished the century, he would have seen the churches taking up the very mission which he preached, joining the movement for labor and equality, and hastening to swim with the current of the century by heading the democratic tendency and leading it towards socialism. And if the Christian churches, in this action, recur to the example of their founder, it is none the less true that primitive Christian socialism has long been practically forgotten in the dazzle of the empires of this world which the Church grasped at Rome and Byzantium, not without falling down and worshipping the Spirit of the Temptation. The Church, it is true, had offered some things which were not dreamed of in Shelley's philosophy: it had furnished a home for the soul about which clustered its most sacred affections; it had promised a home in the hereafter for that *animula vagula blandula* which, without Christianity, must go forth naked to wander or disappear among the kindless elements of the Cosmos. There lingered about these, as about earthly homes, something of selfishness as well as the tenderest sanctities. Their refuge and their sanctities did not appeal to Shelley, who was curiously emancipated from some of the commonest needs and feelings of humanity. To him the elements were not kindless. Alone of the poets he could say without affectation and without figure of speech:

> "Earth, Ocean, Air, beloved brotherhood";

could call "bird, insect, and gentle beast" his brethren and his kindred. He did not replace the Church's ark in his vision of the future, nor indeed do any of the new ethical religions replace it, much as they try to build some raft which will safely bear the timid spirit out upon the sea of the unknown. But no vision, no "charm of wise words" which they have evoked or framed, is more consistent, more inspiring, than the "Prometheus Unbound." Under its spell we are enraptured and transported, we forget the limitations of things—we forget the relic in us of the ape and the tiger, that old Adam which masquerades now as Nero, now as Ravachol; we forget Mr. Huxley's iron facts and his pessimism; and we believe, for a moment, in the perfectibility of nature and of man—we are persuaded

> "to hope till Hope creates
> From its own wreck the thing it contemplates."

Surely this is no "ineffectual angel" who can thus transfigure us with enchantments that are the opposite of Circe's.

The "Prometheus" has certainly found a wider circle of readers than Shelley anticipated; it was written, he said, for half-a-dozen only, for the *συνετοί*. The fact remains that much of the finest of his poetry needs, as it deserves, illustrations. Oftentimes he does not deal in flesh and blood. He is like his own skylark, "an unbodied joy," soaring out of sight above the heads of the multitude.

Mr. Woodberry's notes are not intended to illustrate or criticise the poems, or to give their sources, but simply to furnish the history of the circumstances and the mood in which they were created. Incidentally they include Shelley's own criticisms, which are most valuable and clear-sighted. There remains, then, one important service which Mr. Woodberry can render, and for which we have almost his promise, and that is an illustrative and critical commentary. It need not be quite on the scale of Mr. Rosetti's "Adonais"; and yet, on the other hand, we hope that Mr. Woodberry will not presume too much on the understanding of his readers, and will condescend to be a guide where so many would gladly follow.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The Ainu of Japan. By the Rev. John Batchelor. Fleming H. Revell Co.

It is somewhat provoking, to those who are sticklers in maintaining the infallibility of English orthography, to have to change "Aino" into "Ainu." Nevertheless, the Ainu are men, and the term Ainu is a genuine word which has a linguistic, ethnological, and historical basis. Ainu suggests science. Aino is a mongrel of unknown origin, and carries in it prejudice, bigotry, race hatred and contempt. Aino is the Japanese nickname allied with *inu*, dog, or *ai-no-ko*, hybrid or dog-born. Ainu is the pure vernacular, meaning men, and should everywhere displace the second-hand, foreign, and mistaken term Aino.

As in so many other instances in ethnology, we now have definite knowledge of the Ainu from the Christian missionary. A few explorers, tourists, and navigators have more or less accurately described them, but the Rev. John Batchelor of the English Church Missionary Society has lived among them for years. He has mastered their language, made grammar and dictionary of and for it, collected the Ainu folk lore, made excavations and explorations, and furnished a mass of material which has already cast a great light on the early history of Japan. Indeed, it is now perfectly clear that hundreds of local names in Hondo, from Kioto to the Straits of Tsugaru, the etymology of which has so long baffled natives and foreigners, are of Ainu origin. In their present form they are nothing more than the resultant of Ainu words more or less mispronounced by Japanese, and covered up by Chinese ideographs, themselves also mispronounced. Mr. Walter W. Skeat, who, in his 'Etymological Dictionary of the English Language,' never wearies of showing "the enormous influence which spelling has exerted upon pronunciation," changing old Saxon and Dutch words into a form unrecognizable by a Frieslander or other Teuton, has a notable illustration of his theory in Japan. The *kana* of the Mikado's domain has helped to metamorphose the old Ainu geographical names, as surely as it to-day makes the telegraph say *tin-poo-rā-to* for tin plate.

The Ainu are in the main gentle, peaceable, drunken, and dirty savages, now inhabiting Yezo, Saghalin, and the Kuriles. Before the days of their subjugation by the Japanese, they were a race of hardy fishermen and hunters, inhabiting the upper half of Hondo, the main island of Japan. It is more than probable that those who remained on Hondo were assimilated. Now, after ages of intermarriage and the daily use of the hot bath, the descendants of these prehistoric Ainu tribes have become part of that very mixed ethnological stock termed "Japanese." The Ainu who were driven across the Straits of Tsugaru, remaining isolated, have better preserved their original traits and features. They are undersized, have abundant beards and head-coverings, and much exceed the Japanese in the amount of hair upon their limbs and bodies. They have eyes set at right angles to the nose. In mental capacity and mode of life they are pronounced savages. They are courageous bear-hunters, and patient and faithful as servants and laborers. The Japanese Government seems desirous to protect the possible twenty thousand or so of this fragment of humanity, and to elevate the Ainu by education; but, against the Japanese fur-trader and his whiskey, the decimating diseases, and the concubinage which multiplies weakly half-breeds in a severe climate, there is not much hope for the future of the Ainu as a distinct people.

Mr. Batchelor's book, besides its eighty trustworthy illustrations, its careful editing and arrangement by some friendly hand in London, and its excellent index, is replete with information of all sorts about the Ainu men, women, and children. Almost every phase of their physical and metaphysical life has been studied and carefully noted. Several interesting specimens of folk lore are given. Three of the Gospels have been translated into the Ainu tongue, and a little congregation of Christians has been gathered. In other ways the seeds of Christianity are being sown. It would, indeed, be of the highest interest in the history of Japan if one full-blooded Ainu were to be intellectually fitted to wield a personal influence, or to commit to literature the perishing memorials of a dying race.

Jean Baptiste le Moyne, Sieur de Bienville. By Grace King. [The Makers of America.] Dodd, Mead & Co.

Among the makers of America, Bienville was by no means the least. He was one of the party who first discovered the mouth of the Mississippi from the south in 1699, seventeen years after La Salle had reached that point from the north. This discovery being made on Mardi-Gras is perhaps the ground of that day's becoming the grandest festival of all the year in New Orleans. Nineteen years after he first saw the Mississippi, Bienville founded New Orleans. No one can wonder it was not founded with less delay who traces its founder's career.

Born in 1680 in Montreal, and landing at Biloxi in 1699, he was a subaltern of his brother Iberville, who came in charge of the first French colony which was able to establish itself on the Gulf of Mexico. Found faithful in many trusts and equal to every emergency, he rose step by step to the Governorship of Louisiana, and continued in public service there for twenty-five years before returning to France. On the first voyage up the river in 1699, the future site of New Orleans was ascertained to be the one spot on its banks that was not overflowed at high water. The site commended itself to Bienville as marked by the hand of nature to be chosen for the colonial capital. As early as 1702 he commanded in the principal Mississippi fort, yet his hope of removing the capital from Biloxi was long deferred. Biloxi was a better station for filibusters and contraband dealers with Spaniards, and their influence was long supreme. It was also contended that ships could not cross the bar at the mouth of the river, and it was long before Bienville could refute this notion by sending a ship over that fancied obstacle.

There was a triangular or four-fold fight for the Mississippi. The English and French ships started for that goal in the same month, each without the knowledge of the other. Bienville bluffed off the English at a point just below New Orleans that has ever since been called the English Turn. The Spaniards, who had landed in Pensacola four months previous, were indignant at the French as interlopers. Bienville, however, saw them to be men of unbounded stomachs, yet with nothing to fill them, and obeyed to the utmost of his power the precept, "If thine enemy hunger, feed him." Similar was his strategy in dealings with Indians, and in both cases his gastronomic success was such as men deserve who are willing to go hungry themselves that their enemies may be full-fed. His wisdom in this regard was proved for a generation by his baffling the Spaniards and keeping the Indians at peace—the very savages who, soon after he left the country, massacred every Frenchman in Natchez. Louisiana is a typical specimen of the contrast between the colonizing methods of France and England.

The grand features in Bienville's career swell into fair proportions in the monograph of Miss King. She fascinates us so much that our interest is continuous and grows to the close. Indeed, we wish her book longer when we find that her researches have brought to light nothing concerning Bienville's last five and twenty years save his will and his endeavor to lay before the King a pathetic petition from New Orleans. We wish we could see more to commend in the make-up of Miss King's book. Errors abound, often typographical, and as often those betokening carelessness or imperfect knowledge. The same captain is called Banks (p. 80) and Barr (p. 130). Words occur unknown to Webster or, we think, to any dictionary, such as destituted (p. 277), doleances (p. 289), abortionate, responders. Other words occur in strange senses, as almoner for chaplain, apotheosis for destruction (p. 232), transcribed for described, remitted for transmitted or resigned (p. 287). Odd phrases are the *deperdition* of population (p. 317), and the words "seven leagues" (p. 64) out of connection with any clause before or after. We meet with needless Gallicisms, as batture formations (p. 89), pieu and pieux for posts or palisadoing (p. 213). The index fills less than two pages in a work of three hundred and thirty. The dates are a beggarly account, and that not correct. Thus, it is said (p. 83) that before Twelfth-night, 1700, "a new century was ushered in," as if the hundredth year in a century did not belong to it as much as the first, and as much as the hundredth cent belongs to a dollar. But in treating of the same matters Maurice Thompson speaks of 1699 as "the *last* year of the seventeenth century." The land-grant to Law of the Mississippi bubble is said to have been of four square leagues, and three hundred settlers are described as voyaging to it, while the grant was conditioned on the coming of fifteen hundred. Thus each of the fifteen hundred would have a farm of only fifteen acres. A reader would therefore say that the grant must have been not four square leagues, but four times as much; that is, four leagues square. And so say Thompson, Martin, and Gayarré, as well as common sense.

Garden Design and Architects' Gardens. By William Robinson, F.L.S. London: John Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892.

Six successive sentences ending with exclamation marks or sarcastic question marks—this was the present writer's first reading in this prettily made book. For such an infliction of hysterics no daintiness of printing, binding, or illustrating can atone; nor can the misleading title of the book be easily forgiven. There is no sober discussion of "design" in these strange pages. The author, who is the distinguished editor of the *Garden*, and the writer of 'The Wild Garden' and other valuable books, has been stabbed to the heart by the young writers of that other pretty book, 'The Formal Garden in England,' described last year in these columns. 'The Ejaculations of a Badly Wounded Horticulturist' is what this latest of his books should have been called.

A single passage will suffice to show the manner of the whole book. On page 25 a sentence is quoted from 'The Formal Garden,' and then Mr. Robinson records his pain and disgust as follows:

"A passage full of nonsense! The true use

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and first reason of a garden is to keep and grow for us plants *not* in our woods and mostly from other countries than our own! The yucca, we are told by the authors, is a 'plant out of scale and character among the modest foliage of our English trees'! The yuccas of our gardens are natives of the often cold plains of Eastern America (*sic*), hardy in, and in every way fitted for, English gardens, but *not* amidst English trees. Is the aim of the flower-garden to show the 'modest foliage' of English trees when almost every country house is surrounded by our native woods? According to such childish views, the noble cedars in the park at Goodwood and on the lawn at Pain's Hill are out of place there! What is declared by Mr. Blomfield to be absurd is the soul of true gardening—to show, on a small scale it may be, some of the precious and inexhaustible loveliness of vegetation on plain or wood or mountain. This is the necessary and absolutely only true, just, and fair use of a garden!"

The style of this fragment speaks for itself, while its substance is the best argument for that careful shutting away of gardens which the men whom Mr. Robinson regards as his assailants have advocated in their book. If a garden is a collection of beautiful vegetable growths, it cannot appear in the midst of ordinary landscape without injury to unity and breadth of effect; and, if it is to be made a concealed or enclosed place, its specimen plants can generally be best tended and most effectively displayed in a framework or ground-plan of a formal type—particularly if the space dedicated to its lovely collections lies close to a building the lines of which are formal of necessity.

The style and the logic of the rest of the text of the book are about equal to those of the passage just quoted. The pictures, however, present an argument of their own, and lend a real value to the volume. Not that they prove that formal gardening is abominable, and "wild" gardening only admirable. That the informal type of planting may be ugly in itself, as well as fatally incongruous with its surroundings, is shown by the picture opposite page 50, under which is printed the following inconsequential but seemingly approving line: "Avenue in Paris. Showing that even in a land of clipped trees, clipping is not essential."

The best things in the book are the pictures of the English mansions of West Dean, Goodwood, and Broadlands, with their backgrounds and side scenes of great trees and their central expanses of turf; though just why these very simple park scenes should be inserted in a book which treats of "gardens," and particularly of gardens as treasuries of plants, does not appear.

Christophe Colomb devant l'histoire. Par Henry Harrisse. Paris, 1892. 8vo, pp. 121.

THE time has hardly arrived for grading opinions upon Columbus and his work which this commemorative period has elicited; but Mr. Harrisse has set himself to the task. In knowledge no man is better prepared for scaling a judgment, but in temperament no man could be less fit. There are few of his fellow-students in his own field whom he has not spurned; and in the present essay he gives the first public intimations of the break which he has had with the Italian Government, after it had employed him to edit a great memorial publication of Columbian documents. This work has, in the sequel, been enlarged so as to include the documents illustrative of her other distinguished Italian seamen of the period of exploration, and though it will, unfortunately, not have the benefit of Mr. Harrisse's assistance, it will still have the supervision of scholarly hands. The best statement of what it will contain appears in the new Italian serial *Toscanelli*, to which we recently referred. This publication, by the way, seems to have for its purpose the gathering up of documentary and other material relating to the part Italy took in American discovery, which could not readily be brought within the scope of the greater memorial publication, with its fourteen volumes.

Mr. Harrisse is neither a wit nor a humorist, and there is something elephantine in his gambols in the earlier pages of the book, when he pokes fun at the Chicago Committee for their pretensions in proposing to illustrate the fame of the great Admiral by personal relics and portraits. Even the Chicago *Herald* comes in for a jibe by virtue of its expedition to build a monument on Watling's Island to mark the historic landfall. There is something rather droll in the way in which Mr. Harrisse rules out of court all theories of the landfall, including his own, on the ground that the great harbor which Columbus speaks of as sufficient to hold all the world's navies is nowhere to be found in any of the spots where it is alleged that the banner of Spain was first unfolded in the new regions.

It is not quite apparent whether Mr. Harrisse has the most disdain for what the Spaniards or the Americans have done in these current elucidations of the discoverer's career. Castelar, Fernandez-Duro, and Asensio excite his derision, and it may be admitted that what the Madrid Academicians have been doing of late is not beyond criticism, though so good a student as Mr. Markham has called Asensio's Life of Columbus by far the best which had yet appeared. Mr. Harrisse, if we understand his reference, seems to think that his own investigations have been used by this Spanish biographer without due acknowledgment. Of the Americans, Mr. Winsor, whom he oddly enough calls "an American publicist," is very far from being to his mind. Mr. Harrisse's uneasiness seems to be further increased by the fact that this gentleman has used Mr. Harrisse's results, and has fairly acknowledged it too! Mr. Fiske does not escape a due share of his disdain.

There is little in the book worth dwelling on. It adds neither to our knowledge nor to the author's credit. It is a pity, we may say, in closing, and in all friendliness, that it is Mr. Harrisse's peculiarity to insist upon the use of original documents solely as the basis of historical writing, as if the interpretation which historians put upon such documents does not make the historical record as the world understands it, which succeeding writers must adopt or confront according to new interpretations. If he had all along been better acquainted with the intelligence that his contemporaries had brought to the unravelling of original sources, he would less often have been obliged, between his successive publications, to turn somersaults in his opinions.

The Commerce of Nations. By C. W. Bastable, LL.D., Professor of Political Economy in the University of Dublin. London: Methuen & Co. 1892.

THE main subject of this little volume, the fifth in a series entitled "Social Questions of the Day," is Protection. Discussions of the tariff question are apt to differ from each other chiefly in manner, but in the present work there is new and suggestive matter. About seventy-five pages are devoted to an historical sketch of the prevailing tariff systems of Europe, America, and the English Colonies, brought down to the close of the year 1890. Nowhere else, so far as we are aware, is this material so clearly and compactly set forth. It is the absence of such historical material and the neglect of the comparative method in the tariff controversy which accounts for the astonishing ignorance prevailing in regard to foreign tariffs. Probably a majority of American protectionists believe that all Europe is living under free trade, and that this is the reason why wages are higher in the United States than in Europe. This is the only supposition that explains the wide acceptance of the absurd opinion that the foreigner pays the tariff. As soon as a person realizes that England is practically the only country enjoying free trade, and that the rest of Europe and America, without exception, levy tariffs on English goods, and can be induced to estimate the amount of taxation which would on this hypothesis be levied upon England by the civilized world, this favorite dogma of McKinleyism vanishes into thin air. For more thoughtful readers, Prof. Bastable's sketch brings out two very interesting considerations of the greatest importance in any attempt to explain the slow progress of free trade and the tenacious hold of protection on the popular mind. The history of the various tariff systems establishes a close relation of cause and effect between protectionism and war, and, what is even more suggestive, between protectionism and that moral force which has so dominated political movements during this century—the spirit of nationality. Ten years after the publication of 'The Wealth of Nations,' in 1786, France and England by treaty reduced duties. The French tariff law of 1791 was drawn on liberal lines, and Pitt "was credited with a plan for abolishing both custom and excise, and thus making Great Britain a 'free port.'" The long period of war, which soon followed, counteracted this tendency by increasing the needs for revenue and arousing the spirit of nationality.

"As protectionism naturally arises in a period of warfare, so it is likely to be continued when that period has passed." Striking illustrations of this generalization can be found in the tariff history of the leading States. After the Napoleonic wars, the English tariff was enormously high; but although the work of reform was begun in 1820, and carried on with unremitting zeal, no sweeping reductions were secured until a quarter of a century had elapsed. In France, after the wars, a high tariff prevailed until 1860; but the change was then short-lived, for, after a brief decade, wars, financial needs, and national feeling revived the protectionist policy, which has since been maintained. In the United States, through the embargo and the war of 1812, the people became accustomed to a sharp restriction of foreign trade. When peace was restored, pressing demands were made for protection, and the tariff was gradually increased until 1828. Violent opposition from the South then checked the movement, and, after remaining stationary for five years, the tariff entered upon a period of reduction which lasted, with the exception of the years 1842–1846, until the civil war broke out. That gigantic struggle, like the Napoleonic wars in Europe, fastened a high protective tariff on the country, which has since received little modification. It is pretty clear to the careful student of the period 1846–1860 that anything like the present tariff could never have come into being in times of peace. It now begins to look as if the United States, like England, would roll off the tariff burden of its great war after the lapse of a generation. The recent tariff treaties on the Continent are the first indications that the protectionist influence of the wars of 1866 and 1870 is becoming spent.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The second part of the present work is a compact review of the various arguments for protection. Prof. Bastable's fair statement of these arguments and his temperate tone of criticism render his work suitable for the class-room, and will encourage protectionists to give him a fair hearing. So far as we have noticed, he does not analyze the different effects of a protective tariff on production according as the Law of Diminishing Returns or the Law of Increasing Returns is operative. The English Corn Laws illustrate the former case, and the parts of our tariff protecting high-grade manufactures illustrate the latter. Many of the popular arguments for free trade, inherited as they are from the Corn Law struggle, ignore the difference. Some protectionists have a vague inkling of the difference, but do not give a correct analysis of it, and usually exaggerate its effects. In the production of commodities, where the Law of Diminishing Returns operates, any agency like a tariff which restricts the foreign sources of supply tends to increase the amount of home production; but each increment of home production is secured at an increased cost. Hence, in this case, the normal effect of the tariff would be to increase prices (the demand remaining constant) to the amount of the tariff. A tariff on wool must always increase the cost of wool to the consumer. If, however, the tariff is levied on high-grade manufactures like tools, sewing-machines, or watches, in whose production the law of Increasing Returns operates, each increment of home production, after a certain point, would be secured at a slightly diminishing cost. Hence in this case, where domestic competition is free, prices will tend to fall and will show no assignable ratio to the foreign price plus the tariff. If the Law of Increasing Returns acts sharply, as in the application of new machinery, the domestic price might fall lower than the foreign price, for the domestic article has a different and less cost of production. Until economists reckon with this analysis, and define the limits of this case, they will fail to convince protectionists of their understanding of the problem of production.

For a manufacturing country to protect its agriculture may be a far more costly process than it is for an agricultural country to protect manufacturing. Our own experience, however, during the last twenty-five years, has shown that in most cases where the Law of Increasing Returns has been effective, there has been a movement to convert the gains into monopoly profits by regulating domestic competition through Trusts or other means so as to prevent or retard a fall in prices. So far as the tariff, by diminishing foreign competition, promotes and protects this process of converting gains in production, which should have accrued to consumers, into monopoly profits, it acts directly as a tax upon the community for the benefit of the protected capitalist. In our present industrial organization monopoly profits play a great rôle. It is not possible, perhaps it would not be best, to eliminate this feature of business life which so stimulates every energy, but few would defend legislation to render this feature more pervasive. It is one of the ironies of popular government that the people so generally, at the present day, should be demanding legislation that either increases the cost of commodities or increases monopoly profits at the expense of consumers.

A Treatise on the Mathematical Theory of Elasticity. By A. E. H. Love, M.A., Fellow and Lecturer of St. John's College, Cambridge. Volume I. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

ELATERICS, or the science of elasticity, consists of a purely physical investigation (called, especially with reference to its ruder determinations, the doctrine of the strength of materials) and an elaborate mathematical theory designed to bring the fundamental facts to bear upon questions of applied mechanics; and this mathematical part might very well be called stereostatics. This name would hint at its intimate alliance with hydrodynamics. The two theories alike suppose the solution of complicated partial differential equations with boundary conditions; and the equations of many problems in the one are identical in form with those of problems in the other. They are sister studies, too, in their exceeding economical and philosophical importance. Hydrodynamics has to direct hydraulics and ship-designing; stereostatics to govern almost every operation of engineering, from the vastest erections down to the fashioning of a horse-shoe or a snaffle. The two theories are, finally, in one and the same pickle, in that nearly all the questions that are put to them are beyond the power of our mathematics satisfactorily to answer. Although a wealth of thought of all but the finest quality has long been lavished upon them in a geometrically increasing yearly outpour, so that none of the physical sciences shows greater advances than do the departments of mathematics which may be expected to aid elaterology and hydromechanics, still the practical problems we should wish to solve remain unsolved, and in all likelihood will so remain for a long time to come. Mathematicians, when they cannot solve the problem that real facts present—and this is what always happens—substitute for the real problem a simpler one, as near like the former as they can manage, and are guided by the solution of that. This is that method of abstract or analytical thought which Hegel and his countrymen obligingly teach us is mere futility. This is the style of thinking which makes English political economy so ludicrous to the superwise. They never tire of laughing at the two or three men on a desert island by the study of whose conduct political economists propose to regulate the policy of nations. Yet the contrast between such a little community and a modern State is, after all, certainly not so great as the contrast between any real, practical problem in hydrodynamics or stereostatics and the problem that the engineer succeeds in solving. The resemblance between the actual motion of water in any case and that represented in the pure hydrodynamical solution is so very slight that some study would be required to detect its existence. The contrast between the stresses in a real structure and those in an engineer's diagram are so enormous that for safety he is obliged to allow that they may amount to from five to ten times the latter. If the deriders of abstract thinking would only reflect that theories thus miserably imperfect have nevertheless sufficed to "possibilitate" (as a Spaniard would say) all the great engineering works of our age, they might, in their turn, learn something. Ships and bridges constructed after the directions of concrete historical thought would hardly be likely to prove much cheaper or much safer.

Mr. Love goes so far as to say, "The only logical way would be to use, instead of the elastic equations, others in which set is properly taken into account, and these are, unfortunately, unknown"; but this is exaggerated, for in most cases it is not merely rupture that we desire to avoid, but the passage of the limit of elasticity. But let the reader fancy what the fairy grace of the structures of the future shall be when the theory of stereostatics shall really have been mastered! How gross and stupidly costly ours will appear in comparison, which make the gazer think only of how much money they cost, instead of singing, as those will do, the pæan of triumphant mind. Even to-day, great steps were altogether practicable could a mathematician of real genius be engaged in the task.

Mr. Love's treatise cannot fail to hasten the blessed advent of structural truth. Of late, engineers who have really understood their business have been dependent upon such works as Müller-Breslau's treatise, upon the French edition of that of Clebsch, brought out by the veteran elastician Barré de Saint-Venant, and upon the same eminent author's edition of the 'Leçons de Navier.' But now the whole subject, with the actual state of the most important of the open questions with which it is infested, is lucidly set forth in almost its most modern developments. The reader, for example, has the advantage of Betti's process of integration, though that is hardly twenty years old; but the still more recent methods of Castigliano, Mohr, Fränkel, and others we look for in vain. It must, however, be admitted that some of these are objectionable—one of them decidedly so. The latest things we have noticed in the book are a discussion published by Boussinesque in 1885, and something by Mr. Chree, who read the proofs.

Mr. Love assumes, with Green, that there are 21 independent elastic constants, and does not, with Cauchy, reduce them to 15. This is at present the assumption best supported by observation, even if it be not demonstrated by Voigt's determinations. A very fair account of the whole controversy is given. Mr. Love denies the inference of Sir William Thomson, Lord Kelvin, that because the tidal "effective" rigidity of the earth is intermediate between the rigidities of steel and glass, but nearer the former, therefore the earth's interior cannot be fluid. Certainly, the argument that because the earth does not yield much in a day or a fortnight, it would not yield to a slight force in thousands of years, never did have much force with most minds.

The notation appears to us the most stupid of all the notations, none of them very good, which have ever been proposed for the subject. The first solecism we meet with is that P, Q, R, S, T, U correspond respectively to e, f, g, a, b, c. This is truly British; and this is the general style of the whole.

Sir Henry Maine: A Brief Memoir of His Life. By the Right Hon. Sir M. E. Grant Duff, G.C.S.I. With some of his Indian Speeches and Minutes. Selected and edited by Whitley Stokes, D.C.L. Henry Holt & Co. 1892.

IT is rather surprising that in these crowded days the memoir of even so great a man as Sir Henry Maine should be delayed for five years after his death; but we should have been willing to wait longer if it would have brought us something better than this. No one can question the good intentions of this biographer, or his capacity to estimate Maine's constructive work in India; but more than this is necessary to the writing of a successful memoir. In the case of Sir Henry Maine, it may, perhaps, be said that boyish adventures and youthful errors could not be appropriately introduced; that the interest of his personality was so exclusively intellectual as to make it indecorous to disclose the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

fact that he possessed human affections or yielded to human passions. Upon this principle, possibly, his biographer sums up his matrimonial relations in one line—"In 1847 he married his cousin, Miss Jane Maine, who survives him," and adds only that two sons also survived, one of whom has since died. Yet, if family matters were not to be obtruded, the man had friends, and must have sometimes written a letter that was not of the nature of a *procès-verbal*. But if he did, Sir M. E. Grant Duff fails to disclose it, and to his frank confession that he had "never come across any one who was intimate with Maine in his early days at Cambridge," we feel like adding, "or at any other period." Under these circumstances, we have turned frequently to the fine portrait which is prefixed to this memoir as the only means of reviving the fainting conviction that its subject once existed in the flesh.

Regarding Maine as merely an intellect working upon material of a special character, we may pass a more favorable judgment upon this memoir, but even from this point of view it is entirely inadequate. How came the man by his style, unsurpassed in the field which he cultivated? What gave his mind its bent in this direction? At what moment did he discover his own powers, and under what circumstances did his brilliant generalizations flash upon him? These are the questions which we would have answered, but upon which only a few rays of light are thrown by this biography. They are not idle questions, for we take it that Maine's position is secure, and that he will always be looked upon as a great master, whether his conclusions as to the origin of institutions stand or fall. The observations of an entirely competent expert, Sir Frederick Pollock, seem to us perfectly just. He declared that the impulse given by Maine to the intelligent study of the science of law in England and America can hardly be overrated, and that at one master-stroke he forged a new and lasting bond between history and anthropology.

"Maine," he said, "can no more become obsolete through the industry and ingenuity of modern scholars than Montesquieu could be made obsolete by the legislation of Napoleon. Facts will be corrected, the order and proportion of ideas will vary, new difficulties will call for new ways of solution, useful knowledge will serve its turn and be forgotten; but in all true genius, perhaps, there is a touch of Art: Maine's genius was not only touched with Art, but eminently artistic, and Art is immortal."

It is only fair to say that the successive steps in Maine's career as a writer, as a public officer, and as a professor are very well set forth by Sir M. E. Grant Duff, and he quotes a number of appreciations of Maine's genius and labors that are of value. The most feeling of these is from the *Saturday Review*—a journal that Maine had much to do with starting—presumptively written by his pupil and intimate friend, Mr. Frederic Harrison. Its closing words, "There are persons to whom the world can never have the same aspect again as it had when he lived in it," show that mere intellect was not the whole of Maine, while the estimate of his books is eminently just.

"Their author," this writer declares, "had a power of seeing the general in the particular which we do not think has been equalled in literary history. His works are full of generalizations which are as remarkable for their clearness and sobriety as for their intrinsic probability, and which were reached, not by any very elaborate study of detailed evidence, but by a kind of intuition. He seemed to see things 'in their quiddity,' and to reconstitute them from fragments with the genius of Owen or Cuvier."

Of the collection of speeches and minutes upon Indian jurisprudence and legislation, which make four-fifths of this volume, we can only say that they reveal the splendid powers of the author, but it is according to the proverb *ex ungue leonem*. To the ordinary person they are as unreadable as Sanskrit, but to the jurist they are a mine of sagacious and well-reasoned judgments. There is scarcely a subject of interest to the modern law-giver that is not here treated with such learning and insight as to afford valuable suggestions. Whoever will study these papers may learn the secret of the wonderful success of the English in governing other races, for perhaps nowhere else is there to be found such an exemplification of the methods of framing laws that would be followed by Aristotle's ideal governor, the wise and benevolent despot.

Finger-Prints. By Francis Galton, F.R.S., etc. Macmillan & Co. 1892.

EVERY one has had occasion to observe and at times to be annoyed by finger-marks left upon clean surfaces by sooty or greasy hands; and although the delicacy with which the ridges and furrows of the skin are thus reproduced frequently attracts attention, yet few of us are aware how interesting and important is the study of these minute details of the structure of the skin. In the volume before us the author not only presents a careful summary of previous investigations, but fairly makes the subject his own by a much more exhaustive study than has been heretofore undertaken of the various patterns (conveniently classified as *arches*, *loops*, and *whorls*) to be observed on different finger-tips. The subject is studied from the point of view of heredity, and the patterns shown to be transmissible by descent. In this hereditary transmission the influence of the mother seems to be stronger than that of the father. In another view, the patterns seem to be in no way indicative of race or temperament.

To the general reader the most interesting portion of the book is that which treats of the use of the finger-print for purposes of personal identification. From the study of the finger-prints of fifteen different persons, taken, in each case, at intervals of many years, the author concludes that the patterns are persistent through life. Moreover, each individual pattern presents distinctive points enough to justify the statement that "a complete or nearly complete accordance between two prints of a single finger, and vastly more so between the prints of two or more fingers, affords evidence requiring no corroboration that the persons from whom they were made are the same." When we consider "that this evidence not only is applicable to adults, but can establish the identity of the same person at any stage of his life between babyhood and old age and for some time after his death," it is evident that we have in the finger-print the most perfect known method of personal identification, far surpassing in its accuracy and ease of application the photographic and anthropometric methods in common use.

The author lays no claim to originality in proposing to use the finger-prints for this purpose, though he has furnished the most conclusive proof of their value. He shows, on the contrary, that the plan has been repeatedly suggested both in this country and in Europe, and that the method has been officially employed by Sir Wm. Herschel during more than a quarter of a century in Bengal, and has been found to be of the greatest value in frustrating attempts to repudiate signatures, and in preventing fraudulent personation of pensioners whose apparent longevity had been a source of embarrassment to the Government. It is certainly remarkable that a method which experience has shown to be at once so simple and so perfect has not been generally adopted wherever it is desirable to secure evidence of personal identity.

It should, perhaps, be mentioned that finger-prints can, in the author's opinion, be best made by pressing the fingers first upon a polished sheet of copper covered with a thin coating of printer's ink, and then upon a smooth white card. Copies of prints thus made of the author's ten digits appropriately ornament the title-page of the book.

Sketches of Life and Character in Hungary. By Margaret Fletcher. With illustrations by Rose Le Quesne. Macmillan & Co.

TRAVELLERS may be divided into two classes: those who travel to see, and those who travel to be seen. To the second, women, as a rule, belong. What, asked Miss Fletcher, the minute she arrived in Budapest—what are Hungarians going to think of two young women travelling alone? She carried a hunting-knife at her waist; she and Miss Le Quesne were never without sketch-books in their hands. Their book is the story of the sensation they created while journeying in Hungary.

Hungarians are among the most hospitable people in the world. "We are not the last among civilized races, but the first among barbarians," Magyars say of themselves, and certainly something of Attila survives in every Hungarian host. "We do not think our guests have enjoyed themselves if, when they rise from the table, they can walk quite straight," the Magyar will tell you, if you refuse his Tokay or Szomorodni. We hope leniency was shown to the two unprotected English girls when they were passed on from district to district, from town to town, a banquet being spread for them in each station by the way. They were made to visit the vast Alföld, and to stop at Debreczin, where they were sent out driving in the Mayor's coach-and-four, for the drive in the municipal carriage is an inevitable part of every tourist's Hungarian programme, to be marked with a star in a revised Baedeker. They were escorted to Transylvania, and made to "do" its springs, its gold and salt mines; in fact, all the resources of the country, except, fortunately, its bear hunts, they were forced to test. In the record of their triumphal progress it would have been impossible not to give the impression of boundless hospitality in the Magyars; just as in the drawings it would have been hard indeed not to suggest the infinite picturesqueness of the people's dress.

But beyond this the book has little to tell of one of the most interesting nations of Europe—nothing of that strange meeting of East and West, that strange combination of old and new, of civilization and barbarism, which renders Hungary so incomprehensible to the foreigner. There is not a word of the wonder of finding, in towns built upon the most improved modern plan, men and women wild, unkempt, and scantily clad as savages; not a word of the fierce race problems of Transylvania, where in one village is the Rumanian who refuses to understand the language of the Magyar or the Saxon in the next, but a few kilometres away. Perhaps it is as well that Miss Fletcher did her best to keep to her own personal experiences and to steer clear of facts.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

When she ventures upon them, accuracy is not her strong point. It would have been better to say nothing of the Szeklers—the little group of Hungarians who boast of being direct descendants of Attila's Huns—than to call them Catholics when really they are ardent Unitarians; better to listen in silence to the music of the gypsies than to endow them with an unlimited freedom which has long since been restricted, than to give them a place in the heart of the Magyar, who treats them as if they were but dirt beneath his feet. The illustrations might be better, but nowadays worse are often published. There is movement in the figures in the full-page drawings, which, however, technically, have little distinction.

Short Stalks. By E. N. Buxton. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

In the author's preface are to be found an admission, and an accompanying apology, which are good indications of the spirit of this work. "I freely admit," says Mr. Buxton, "that it is a pity, but I cannot deny, that, to most of us, the pursuit of creatures which are hard to catch, whether butterflies or buffaloes, is very pleasant. . . . I may at least urge, in mitigation, that in all these journeys, spreading over more than a quarter of a century, I am personally responsible for the death of less than eighty four-footed animals." These words reveal the true sportsman, who does not kill for the mere sake of killing, but would venture everything for a rare trophy of skill and endurance. Mr. Buxton's ambition has taken him far from the beaten track, for he has hunted in the rarely visited parts of four continents, Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. His narrative has, accordingly, the interest of freshness, while just enough space is given to commonplace regions to vouch for the truthfulness and accuracy of the reporter. There is the added charm of straightforwardness and simplicity in the style, importing actual experience; and a modesty rarely found in so egotistic a work as the relation of one's own exploits. The descriptions are concise, each chapter being the complete story of some shooting trip, often shortened almost to journal form. One cannot help wishing that an author who has so much interesting to tell, had been a little more copious, and, if necessary, left some of his hunting adventures for another volume. That Mr. Buxton has fully appreciated what has fallen under his observation, is evident from stray bits here and there, but he always checks his disposition to enlarge, as if for want of room, and returns to the pursuit of the business in hand and the quarry. The book is handsomely illustrated.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atkins, T. DeC. The Kelt or Gael; His Ethnography, Geography and Philology. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Bates, H. W. The Naturalist on the River Amazons. With a Memoir of the Author by Edward Clodd. Illustrated. Appletons.
Byr, Robert. The Cipher Despatch. Worthington Co.
Champneys, A. C. History of English. Macmillan. $1.25.
Holman, Prof. S. W. Discussion of the Precision of Measurements. John Wiley & Sons. $2.
Linton, W. J. European Republicans: Recollections of Mazzini and his Friends. London: Lawrence & Bullen.
Maple, W. H. No "Beginning"; or, The Fundamental Fallacy. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. $1.
Reid, Christian. A Comedy of Elopement. Appletons. $1.
Samson-Himmelstierna, H. Von. Russia under Alexander III., and in the Preceding Period. Macmillan. $3.
Tyrrell, Prof. R. Y. The Bacchæ of Euripides. Macmillan.
Under King Constantine: Poems. Randolph. $1.50.
Usher, J. E. Alcoholism and its Treatment. Putnams. $1.25.
Vachon, Marius. La Femme dans l'Art. Paris: J. Rouam & Cie.; New York: J. W. Bouton.
Van Ness, Rev. Thomas. The Coming Religion. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
West, Mary. A Born Player. Macmillan. $1.
Westcott, Rev. B. F. The Gospel of Life; Thoughts introductory to the Study of Christian Doctrine. Macmillan. $1.75.
Williams, C. M. A Review of the Systems of Ethics founded on the Theory of Evolution. Macmillan. $2.60.

FEBRUARY
EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

Articles.—Need of Universities in the United States, Hermann E. Von Holst; Educational Exhibits at World's Fairs, I., Richard Waterman, jr.; Relations of Literature and Philology, Oliver Farrar Emerson; Electives in the High School, Edward J. Goodwin; Text-books of Geography, Jacques W. Redway.
Education in Foreign Periodicals.—Inaugural Lecture as Regius Professor of Modern History at Oxford, J. A. Froude.
Discussions.—Admission to College by Certificate, Cyrus Northrop, Merrill E. Gates.
Reviews, Editorials.
35 cents a number; $3.00 a year (monthly excepting July and August).

HENRY HOLT & CO., N. Y.

Economic History Since 1763.

Selections illustrating Economic History since the Seven Years' War. Compiled by Benjamin Rand, Ph.D. Second edition, revised and enlarged. 8vo, pp. 567, $3.00.

"The production of this book may be said to mark an epoch in the teaching of political economy in this country, and to make possible a new branch of study in the curriculum of the Universities of America."—*Halifax Herald.*

JOHN WILSON & SON,
UNIVERSITY PRESS, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

HATCHARDS.

This is the favorite BOOKSTORE, and for 100 years the resort of the smartest people in London. It is visited and patronized by all who love books. London is the great market for books, and all the best as well as the cheapest editions can be had by writing to us. Special collections formed, and fuller information supplied than from any other house. Books both old and new, and relating to any subject, can readily be supplied at very moderate prices.

Agents for Clubs, Libraries, and all private Collectors.

187 Piccadilly, London W.

Letters of Credit. We buy and sell bills of exchange on and make Cable Transfers of money to Europe, Australia, and the West Indies; also make collections and issue Commercial and Travelers' Credits, available in all parts of the world.

Brown Brothers & Co., Bankers,
NO. 59 WALL STREET, NEW YORK.

Dyspepsia

Dr. T. H. Andrews, Jefferson Medical College, Philadelphia, says of

Horsford's Acid Phosphate,

"A wonderful remedy, which gave me most gratifying results in the worst forms of dyspepsia."

It reaches various forms of Dyspepsia that no other Medicine seems to touch, assisting the weakened stomach, and making the process of digestion natural and easy.

Descriptive Pamphlet free on application to

Rumford Chemical Works, Providence, R. I.

Beware of Substitutes and Imitations.

For sale by all druggists.

YALE MIXTURE

The choicest Smoking Tobacco experience can produce or that money can buy. Marburg Bros.

SPECIAL BRAIN FOOD & NERVE TONIC.
CROSBY'S VITALIZED PHOSPHITES.

Composed of the Phosphoid Principle of the Ox Brain and Wheat Germ.

The very elements which produce vital force, increase brain power, sustain in vigor all the functions, prevent mental and nervous debility.

It is a *vital nutrient* phosphite, not a laboratory or acid phosphate. Formula on each label. Pamphlet with full information free on application to

56 West 25th Street, N. Y. *F. Crosby Co.*

For sale by leading druggists.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

HOMŒOPATHIC BIBLIOGRAPHY of the UNITED STATES. By Thomas Lindsley Bradford, M.D. 596 pages, 8vo, cloth, $3.50; half morocco, $4.50. By mail, 30 cents extra.

BOERICKE & TAFEL, Publishers,
Philadelphia, Pa.

"I regard it as a valuable acquisition, and only a librarian knows how valuable it will be for reference."—*G. E. Wire, M.D., Supt. of Med. Dept., Newbury Library, Chicago.*

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

fact that he possessed human affections or yielded to human passions. Upon this principle, possibly, his biographer sums up his matrimonial relations in one line—"In 1847 he married his cousin, Miss Jane Maine, who survives him," and adds only that two sons also survived, one of whom has since died. Yet, if family matters were not to be obtruded, the man had friends, and must have sometimes written a letter that was not of the nature of a *procès-verbal*. But if he did, Sir M. E. Grant Duff fails to disclose it, and to his frank confession that he had "never come across any one who was intimate with Maine in his early days at Cambridge," we feel like adding, "or at any other period." Under these circumstances, we have turned frequently to the fine portrait which is prefixed to this memoir as the only means of reviving the fainting conviction that its subject once existed in the flesh.

Regarding Maine as merely an intellect working upon material of a special character, we may pass a more favorable judgment upon this memoir, but even from this point of view it is entirely inadequate. How came the man by his style, unsurpassed in the field which he cultivated? What gave his mind its bent in this direction? At what moment did he discover his own powers, and under what circumstances did his brilliant generalizations flash upon him? These are the questions which we would have answered, but upon which only a few rays of light are thrown by this biography. They are not idle questions, for we take it that Maine's position is secure, and that he will always be looked upon as a great master, whether his conclusions as to the origin of institutions stand or fall. The observations of an entirely competent expert, Sir Frederick Pollock, seem to us perfectly just. He declared that the impulse given by Maine to the intelligent study of the science of law in England and America can hardly be overrated, and that at one master-stroke he forged a new and lasting bond between history and anthropology.

"Maine," he said, "can no more become obsolete through the industry and ingenuity of modern scholars than Montesquieu could be made obsolete by the legislation of Napoleon. Facts will be corrected, the order and proportion of ideas will vary, new difficulties will call for new ways of solution, useful knowledge will serve its turn and be forgotten; but in all true genius, perhaps, there is a touch of Art: Maine's genius was not only touched with Art, but eminently artistic, and Art is immortal."

It is only fair to say that the successive steps in Maine's career as a writer, as a public officer, and as a professor are very well set forth by Sir M. E. Grant Duff, and he quotes a number of appreciations of Maine's genius and labors that are of value. The most feeling of these is from the *Saturday Review*—a journal that Maine had much to do with starting—presumptively written by his pupil and intimate friend, Mr. Frederic Harrison. Its closing words, "There are persons to whom the world can never have the same aspect again as it had when he lived in it," show that mere intellect was not the whole of Maine, while the estimate of his books is eminently just.

"Their author," this writer declares, "had a power of seeing the general in the particular which we do not think has been equalled in literary history. His works are full of generalizations which are as remarkable for their clearness and sobriety as for their intrinsic probability, and which were reached, not by any very elaborate study of detailed evidence, but by a kind of intuition. He seemed to see things 'in their quiddity,' and to reconstitute them from fragments with the genius of Owen or Cuvier."

Of the collection of speeches and minutes upon Indian jurisprudence and legislation, which make four-fifths of this volume, we can only say that they reveal the splendid powers of the author, but it is according to the proverb *ex ungue leonem*. To the ordinary person they are as unreadable as Sanskrit, but to the jurist they are a mine of sagacious and well-reasoned judgments. There is scarcely a subject of interest to the modern law-giver that is not here treated with such learning and insight as to afford valuable suggestions. Whoever will study these papers may learn the secret of the wonderful success of the English in governing other races, for perhaps nowhere else is there to be found such an exemplification of the methods of framing laws that would be followed by Aristotle's ideal governor, the wise and benevolent despot.

Finger-Prints. By Francis Galton, F.R.S., etc. Macmillan & Co. 1892.

EVERY one has had occasion to observe and at times to be annoyed by finger-marks left upon clean surfaces by sooty or greasy hands; and although the delicacy with which the ridges and furrows of the skin are thus reproduced frequently attracts attention, yet few of us are aware how interesting and important is the study of these minute details of the structure of the skin. In the volume before us the author not only presents a careful summary of previous investigations, but fairly makes the subject his own by a much more exhaustive study than has been heretofore undertaken of the various patterns (conveniently classified as *arches*, *loops*, and *whorls*) to be observed on different finger-tips. The subject is studied from the point of view of heredity, and the patterns shown to be transmissible by descent. In this hereditary transmission the influence of the mother seems to be stronger than that of the father. In another view, the patterns seem to be in no way indicative of race or temperament.

To the general reader the most interesting portion of the book is that which treats of the use of the finger-print for purposes of personal identification. From the study of the finger-prints of fifteen different persons, taken, in each case, at intervals of many years, the author concludes that the patterns are persistent through life. Moreover, each individual pattern presents distinctive points enough to justify the statement that "a complete or nearly complete accordance between two prints of a single finger, and vastly more so between the prints of two or more fingers, affords evidence requiring no corroboration that the persons from whom they were made are the same." When we consider "that this evidence not only is applicable to adults, but can establish the identity of the same person at any stage of his life between babyhood and old age and for some time after his death," it is evident that we have in the finger-print the most perfect known method of personal identification, far surpassing in its accuracy and ease of application the photographic and anthropometric methods in common use.

The author lays no claim to originality in proposing to use the finger-prints for this purpose, though he has furnished the most conclusive proof of their value. He shows, on the contrary, that the plan has been repeatedly suggested both in this country and in Europe, and that the method has been officially employed by Sir Wm. Herschel during more than a quarter of a century in Bengal, and has been found to be of the greatest value in frustrating attempts to repudiate signatures, and in preventing fraudulent personation of pensioners whose apparent longevity had been a source of embarrassment to the Government. It is certainly remarkable that a method which experience has shown to be at once so simple and so perfect has not been generally adopted wherever it is desirable to secure evidence of personal identity.

It should, perhaps, be mentioned that finger-prints can, in the author's opinion, be best made by pressing the fingers first upon a polished sheet of copper covered with a thin coating of printer's ink, and then upon a smooth white card. Copies of prints thus made of the author's ten digits appropriately ornament the title-page of the book.

Sketches of Life and Character in Hungary. By Margaret Fletcher. With illustrations by Rose Le Quesne. Macmillan & Co.

TRAVELLERS may be divided into two classes: those who travel to see, and those who travel to be seen. To the second, women, as a rule, belong. What, asked Miss Fletcher, the minute she arrived in Budapest—what are Hungarians going to think of two young women travelling alone? She carried a hunting-knife at her waist; she and Miss Le Quesne were never without sketch-books in their hands. Their book is the story of the sensation they created while journeying in Hungary.

Hungarians are among the most hospitable people in the world. "We are not the last among civilized races, but the first among barbarians," Magyars say of themselves, and certainly something of Attila survives in every Hungarian host. "We do not think our guests have enjoyed themselves if, when they rise from the table, they can walk quite straight," the Magyar will tell you, if you refuse his Tokay or Szomorodni. We hope leniency was shown to the two unprotected English girls when they were passed on from district to district, from town to town, a banquet being spread for them in each station by the way. They were made to visit the vast Alföld, and to stop at Debreczin, where they were sent out driving in the Mayor's coach-and-four, for the drive in the municipal carriage is an inevitable part of every tourist's Hungarian programme, to be marked with a star in a revised Baedeker. They were escorted to Transylvania, and made to "do" its springs, its gold and salt mines; in fact, all the resources of the country, except, fortunately, its bear hunts, they were forced to test. In the record of their triumphal progress it would have been impossible not to give the impression of boundless hospitality in the Magyars; just as in the drawings it would have been hard indeed not to suggest the infinite picturesqueness of the people's dress.

But beyond this the book has little to tell of one of the most interesting nations of Europe—nothing of that strange meeting of East and West, that strange combination of old and new, of civilization and barbarism, which renders Hungary so incomprehensible to the foreigner. There is not a word of the wonder of finding, in towns built upon the most improved modern plan, men and women wild, unkempt, and scantily clad as savages; not a word of the fierce race problems of Transylvania, where in one village is the Rumanian who refuses to understand the language of the Magyar or the Saxon in the next, but a few kilometres away. Perhaps it is as well that Miss Fletcher did her best to keep to her own personal experiences and to steer clear of facts.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

When she ventures upon them, accuracy is not her strong point. It would have been better to say nothing of the Szeklers—the little group of Hungarians who boast of being direct descendants of Attila's Huns—than to call them Catholics when really they are ardent Unitarians; better to listen in silence to the music of the gypsies than to endow them with an unlimited freedom which has long since been restricted, than to give them a place in the heart of the Magyar, who treats them as if they were but dirt beneath his feet. The illustrations might be better, but nowadays worse are often published. There is movement in the figures in the full-page drawings, which, however, technically, have little distinction.

Short Stalks. By E. N. Buxton. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

In the author's preface are to be found an admission, and an accompanying apology, which are good indications of the spirit of this work. "I freely admit," says Mr. Buxton, "that it is a pity, but I cannot deny, that, to most of us, the pursuit of creatures which are hard to catch, whether butterflies or buffaloes, is very pleasant. . . . I may at least urge, in mitigation, that in all these journeys, spreading over more than a quarter of a century, I am personally responsible for the death of less than eighty four-footed animals." These words reveal the true sportsman, who does not kill for the mere sake of killing, but would venture everything for a rare trophy of skill and endurance. Mr. Buxton's ambition has taken him far from the beaten track, for he has hunted in the rarely visited parts of four continents, Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. His narrative has, accordingly, the interest of freshness, while just enough space is given to commonplace regions to vouch for the truthfulness and accuracy of the reporter. There is the added charm of straightforwardness and simplicity in the style, importing actual experience; and a modesty rarely found in so egotistic a work as the relation of one's own exploits. The descriptions are concise, each chapter being the complete story of some shooting trip, often shortened almost to journal form. One cannot help wishing that an author who has so much interesting to tell, had been a little more copious, and, if necessary, left some of his hunting adventures for another volume. That Mr. Buxton has fully appreciated what has fallen under his observation, is evident from stray bits here and there, but he always checks his disposition to enlarge, as if for want of room, and returns to the pursuit of the business in hand and the quarry. The book is handsomely illustrated.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atkins, T. DeC. The Kelt or Gael; His Ethnography, Geography and Philology. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Bates, H. W. The Naturalist on the River Amazons. With a Memoir of the Author by Edward Clodd. Illustrated. Appletons.
Byr, Robert. The Cipher Despatch. Worthington Co.
Champneys, A. C. History of English. Macmillan. $1.25.
Holman, Prof. S. W. Discussion of the Precision of Measurements. John Wiley & Sons. $2.
Linton, W. J. European Republicans: Recollections of Mazzini and his Friends. London: Lawrence & Bullen.
Maple, W. H. No "Beginning"; or, The Fundamental Fallacy. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. $1.
Reid, Christian. A Comedy of Elopement. Appletons. $1.
Samson-Himmelstierna, H. Von. Russia under Alexander III., and in the Preceding Period. Macmillan. $3.
Tyrrell, Prof. R. Y. The Bacchæ of Euripides. Macmillan.
Under King Constantine: Poems. Randolph. $1.50.
Usher, J. E. Alcoholism and its Treatment. Putnams. $1.25.
Vachon, Marius. La Femme dans l'Art. Paris: J. Rouam & Cie.; New York: J. W. Bouton.
Van Ness, Rev. Thomas. The Coming Religion. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
West, Mary. A Born Player. Macmillan. $1.
Westcott, Rev. B. F. The Gospel of Life; Thoughts introductory to the Study of Christian Doctrine. Macmillan. $1.75.
Williams, C. M. A Review of the Systems of Ethics founded on the Theory of Evolution. Macmillan. $2.60.

FEBRUARY
EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

ARTICLES.—Need of Universities in the United States, Hermann E. Von Holst; Educational Exhibits at World's Fairs, I., Richard Waterman, jr.; Relations of Literature and Philology, Oliver Farrar Emerson; Electives in the High School, Edward J. Goodwin; Text-books of Geography, Jacques W. Redway.
EDUCATION IN FOREIGN PERIODICALS.—Inaugural Lecture as Regius Professor of Modern History at Oxford, J. A. Froude.
DISCUSSIONS.—Admission to College by Certificate, Cyrus Northrop, Merrill E. Gates.
REVIEWS, EDITORIALS.
35 cents a number; $3.00 a year (monthly excepting July and August).

HENRY HOLT & CO., N. Y.

Economic History Since 1763.
Selections illustrating Economic History since the Seven Years' War. Compiled by BENJAMIN RAND, Ph.D. Second edition, revised and enlarged. 8vo, pp. 567, $3.00.
"The production of this book may be said to mark an epoch in the teaching of political economy in this country, and to make possible a new branch of study in the curriculum of the Universities of America."—*Halifax Herald.*
JOHN WILSON & SON,
UNIVERSITY PRESS, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

HATCHARDS.
This is the favorite BOOKSTORE, and for 100 years the resort of the smartest people in London. It is visited and patronized by all who love books. London is the great market for books, and all the best as well as the cheapest editions can be had by writing to us. Special collections formed, and fuller information supplied than from any other house. Books both old and new, and relating to any subject, can readily be supplied at very moderate prices.
Agents for Clubs, Libraries, and all private Collectors.
187 PICCADILLY, LONDON W.

Letters of Credit. We buy and sell bills of exchange on and make Cable Transfers of money to Europe, Australia, and the West Indies; also make collections and issue Commercial and Travelers' Credits, available in all parts of the world.
Brown Brothers & Co., Bankers,
NO. 59 WALL STREET, NEW YORK.

Dyspepsia
Dr. T. H. Andrews, Jefferson Medical College, Philadelphia, says of
Horsford's Acid Phosphate,
"A wonderful remedy, which gave me most gratifying results in the worst forms of dyspepsia."
It reaches various forms of Dyspepsia that no other Medicine seems to touch, assisting the weakened stomach, and making the process of digestion natural and easy.
Descriptive Pamphlet free on application to
Rumford Chemical Works, Providence, R. I.
Beware of Substitutes and Imitations.
For sale by all druggists.

YALE MIXTURE
The choicest Smoking Tobacco experience can produce or that money can buy. MARBURG BROS.

SPECIAL BRAIN FOOD & NERVE TONIC.
CROSBY'S VITALIZED PHOSPHITES.
Composed of the Phosphoid Principle of the Ox Brain and Wheat Germ.
The very elements which produce vital force, increase brain power, sustain in vigor all the functions, prevent mental and nervous debility.
It is a *vital nutrient* phos*phite*, not a laboratory or acid phos*phate*. Formula on each label. Pamphlet with full information free on application to
56 West 25th Street, N. Y. *F. Crosby Co.*
For sale by leading druggists.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.
HOMŒOPATHIC BIBLIOGRAPHY of the UNITED STATES. By THOMAS LINDSLEY BRADFORD, M.D. 596 pages, 8vo, cloth, $3.50; half morocco, $4.50. By mail, 30 cents extra.
BOERICKE & TAFEL, Publishers,
Philadelphia, Pa.
"I regard it as a valuable acquisition, and only a librarian knows how valuable it will be for reference."—*G. E. Wire, M.D., Supt. of Med. Dept., Newbury Library, Chicago.*

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED